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Introduction

1.1 Problem definition

At the end of the 20th century Kazakhstan started to experience population decline not only because of the decline in the rate of natural increase in 1993 but also as a result of migration outflow. "Up until 1993 the population of Kazakhstan albeit slowly, but was increasing annually. From 1990 to 1992 only the rate of natural increase allowed to provide the absolute growth of the population and neutralize the impact of migration. 1993 was a turning-point year. That year, Kazakhstan recorded the largest population size in history. However, that was the year of increased rate of migration loss which reduced the rate of natural increase and affected total population size. Since 1993, the population of the Republic Kazakhstan has been annually decreasing" (Zimovina, 2003). In 1989 population size equaled to 16 million inhabitants, however in 1999 it decreased to 15 million inhabitants (see Annex 1).

"Dynamics of the population of Kazakhstan has mostly been dependent on migration for a long time now (about hundred years). Since most of the century Kazakhstan was the recipient it has undergone significant changes in its ethnic composition" (Alekseenko, 2008). "These are the concequences of resettlement policy in the early 20th century, the uprising of 1916, civil war, famine in the early in 1930, collectivization, forced resettlement and repression. The Great Patriotic War as well as the development of virgin and fallow lands has made the great impact on the dynamics of the demographic development of Kazakhstan. It was the time when many industries and people were evacuated to Kazakhstan. Active inflow of other nationalities from the Soviet Republics has led to an ethno specific imbalance over the years. In 1960–1970 proportion of titular Kazakhs occupied only the second place of population after Russians (30 % in 1959, 33 % in 1970, 36 % in 1979 and 40 % in 1989)" (Zimovina, 2003).

The demographic situation in Kazakhstan has led to the need to find ways and resolve these challenges. Since 1991, when Kazakhstan gained its independence it launched the Program on repatriation of ethnic Kazakhs in order to improve the demographic situation as ethnic Kazakhs traditionally have numerous families. It is believed that repatriates still hold on to the features of traditional big size families and would continue to do so in Kazakhstan. The main reason was first of all, to remove the ethno-demographic imbalance that appeared during the Soviet period and to restore the historical justices. Secondly, to 're-fill' the losses of migration, to stabilize the

demographic situation and finally to accomplish the task set by the president N. Nazarbayev, i.e. to enlarge the size of the population up to 20 million people by 2015 (Alekseenko, 2008). In order to fill the losses of migration, repatriates were placed in rural areas of Karaganda, Pavlodar, Kokshetausk, Semipalatinsk and East Kazakhstan regions, the places with the highest negative rate of migration. As a result of the Program on repatriation, the proportion of indigenous population increased up to 63.6 % according to the latest population census of 2009 (see Annex 1).

The analysis were based on the own survey data collected during field research in Kazakhstan and Mongolia during the summer of 2009. Doctoral research tries to answer the questions whether the repatriates influence demographic situation in Kazakhstan in required direction by having (traditionally) numerous families or whether they adapt to the new environment preferring self-realization and use birth control methods to postpone or reduce their reproduction. The results allow to describe the empirical tendencies of such behaviour.

1.2 Goal and objectives of the research

Identification of differences and commonalities of reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and those ethnic Kazakhs living in Mongolia are the overall goal of the submitted doctoral thesis. It is shown in the thesis how migration through disruption of original social networks, different changes in the social environment, and the first stage of socializing of the second generation of repatriates influence reproductive behaviour of women of particular generations.

Referring to this aim the following research objectives have been defined:

- To discover peculiar features of reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakh in Mongolia (by sex, by age groups, by place of residence in Kazakhstan);
- To recognize reproductive attitudes of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (in particular actual, ideal, desired, planned numbers of children in a family);
- To explain the influence of the new environment and society on reproductive decisions and how it affects fertility.

The connection between moving to Kazakhstan and its influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates, association between the level and conditions of repatriates' life by the place of residence, age groups and the real number of children will be studied in this research.

1.3 Research questions and hypothesis

Five research questions and corresponding hypotheses are considered when studying reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs. They are connected with the consequences of migration, socio-demographic characteristics of repatriates, and their new life in a new place, different from the previous place of residence. Based on the goal of the doctoral thesis, the following research questions can be formulated:

1) What is the influence of repatriation on reproductive behaviour of women and what are the expected changes in repatriates' reproduction?
2) Does reproductive behaviour of repatriates differ in the new environment according to their living conditions?
3) Do new socio-economic and cultural conditions influence fertility in a positive or negative way?
4) Are there some differences in reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethic Kazakhs in Mongolia*?*
5) What is the influence of migration, new environment and society on traditional values and behaviour of repatriates?

Based on the research questions, the following hypotheses can be suggested:

1) The level of fertility of repatriates decreased after their moving to Kazakhstan as a result of social environment change.
2) Reproductive behaviour of repatriates is modified by their new living conditions (financial well-being, living environment, etc.).
3) New socio-economic and cultural conditions influence fertility positively.
4) Reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia substantially differs from ethnic Kazakhs living in Mongolia. Differences in behaviour can be observed especially among younger generations.
5) Difficulties related to migration strengthen traditional values (value of children, role of husband in a family, notion about divorce, gender preferences etc.) and respective behaviour of repatriates.

1.4 Structure of the research

Each chapter of this doctoral thesis performs its clear function: introductory, methodological, descriptive or analytical.

The introduction is the first part of the dissertation. The relevance of the research, its goal and aims, research questions and hypotheses are specified there. The introduction is followed by the second chapter providing an overview of basic terminology necessary for easier and better understanding of further text. The literature review is given in the third part of the thesis. In the fourth chapter theoretical and conceptual background of work is presented. The concepts mentioned there are divided into sociological and demographic concepts and the concept of reproductive behaviour and planned behaviour which is discussed separately.

The fifth part of the thesis introducing own core of the work is dedicated to the socio-cultural background and characteristics of life of repatriates from Mongolia and the Kazakhs living in Kazakhstan. The sixth chapter of thesis describes history of Kazakh diaspora in Mongolia, ethnic return policy of Israel, Germany and repatriation to Kazakhstan. The seventh chapter can be labeled as methodological. It includes general description of the research, employed data resources and data gathering and analysis methods.

The principal results of the sociological field research focused on reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are presented in the eighth main and the most

extensive section of the submitted thesis. The ninth chapter is devoted to obtained results of sociological field research dealing with a family living standard and its influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The results of the field research on cultural orientation, attitudes, norms and values of children and its influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are presented in the tenth chapter of the thesis. Analysis of reproductive behaviour of respondents based on application of Poisson's regression model are presented in the eleventh chapter of the thesis. This chapter is also summarizing the results of the entire analytical work.

In the final part of the thesis the main findings are recapitulated and conclusions are drawn. Lists of tables, figures, pictures, schemes, references and appendices represent an unseparable part of the submitted work.

2 Basic terminology

To analyze reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia in this disseration, we used the following terms:

Repatriates (oralmans) people of the indigenous nationality, exiled from the territory of their historical homeland by acts of mass political repression, illegal requisition, forced collectivization, and other inhumane acts voluntarily resettling in the Republic of Kazakhstan for permanent residence. The term 'oralmans' means foreign citizens or stateless people of Kazakh ethnicity who permanently resided outside Kazakhstan on the date when it gained its sovereignty and arrived in Kazakhstan for the purpose of permanent residence (The law, 1997).

Repatriation – returning home of prisoners of war, displaced people, refugees, immigrants, oralmans (The law, 1997).

Return migration is the term used for the movement of individuals back to their place of origin after they have been absent for some time (United Nations, 1958).

Ethnic Kazakhs are people who live outside the country of its historical origin. In this paper we talk about ethnic Kazakhs who live predominantly in Western Mongolia in Bayan-Ulgii aimag.

Reproductive behaviour is a system of activities and relations that mediate the birth of a child or refusal to have a child in or outside marriage (Antonov, 2003; Borisov, 1970). Often this term is used to describe the intentions to have a child, the desired number of children, etc. Reproductive behaviour is dependent on the necessity to have children. There are three types of reproductive behaviour: the necessity to have many children (5 and more), the necessity to have the number of children assuring basic extended reproduction (3–4) and the necessity to have a few children (1–2). In the fertility research one usually uses the concept of ideal, desired and expected numbers of children in a family; sometimes they use the number of children being planned at the moment of marriage.

Actual number of children is the number of children ever born.

Ideal number of children reflects the socially accepted norm of reproductive behaviour.

Desired number of children reflects the readiness to give birth to a certain number of children having all necessary conditions.

Planned number of children mirrors present living situation of the respondent and its assumed future changes.

*Reproductive intention*s are plans preceding pregnancy which are supposed to intervene between attitudes and behaviour.

Generation - in non-technical language the term *generation is* often used loosely to refer to people of similar age at the same time. In technical literature the term generation has been given a precise meaning and refers to a group of people born within a specified period of time, generally taken as a calendar year. More recently the term cohort has been introduced to denote a group of people who experience a certain event in a specified period, e.g. marriage cohort. The term generation may also be used as a synonym for cohort. In demography as in genealogy the term generation may also be used to denote the descendants of group of people who themselves represent a generation in the sense of cohort. Thus migrants' children are often referred to as the *second generation (*United Nations, 1958*).*

Second generation of repatriates (or the first group of respondents) means that they are children of repatriates who repatriated to Kazakhstan from Mongolia in 1991–1993 (born and raised in Kazakhstan or born in Mongolia but moved to Kazakhstan during the first year of life, not married, attended the same school as the local Kazakhs).

First generation of repatriates is the second, third and fourth group of repatriates who migrated to Kazakhstan in 1991–1993.

The second group of respondents (in 2009 were at the age of 25–29 years) is the group of repatriates who repatriated to Kazakhstan in 1991–1993 (at the time of arrival they were at the age of 6–13 years), were born in Mongolia, but grew up and eventually got married in Kazakhstan.

The third group of repatriates (in 2009 were at the age of 35–40 years) is the group of repatriates who repatriated to Kazakhstan in 1991–1993 (at the time of arrival they were at the age of 16–24 years).

Older generation of repatriates (the fourth group of repatriates in 2009 were at the age of 55– 60 years) is the group of repatriates who repatriated to Kazakhstan in 1991–1993 (at the time of arrival they were at the age of 36–44 years).

3 Literature overview

The influence of migration on fertility in the context of immigrant's fertility is one of the widely discussed topics not only in demography and not only in academic circles. All researchers are acute with one the following question: Does reproductive behaviour of the incoming population after migration and indigenous population differ? If yes, how do these differences influence the integral birth rates of the in-taking territories?

The first person who used a new method of estimating total fertility, taking fertility both before and after migration into account was L. Toleumon. He also describes fertility not only by the age, but also by duration of migration. As migration marks a major discontinuity in fertility, he proposed a new method which takes this discontinuity into account in order to obtain an unbiased comparison (Toleumon, 2006).

Many authors investigated the differences between first and second generation of migrants after migration. A. Vitali and his colleagues simultaneously explore the differences and similarities in fertility behaviour and intentions between migrants and stayers in their countries of origin, as well as between migrants and natives of destination countries (Vitali, Billari, and Furstenberg 2008). There is much less research on the fertility of the second generation immigrants despite the fact that assimilation is a long process which changes immigrants and their situation over generations. Fertility of the second generation of immigrants and contrasting it with that of their parents and native population was explored by K. Scott and M. Stanfors. Preliminary result of their analyses gives some support to a straight-line assimilation hypothesis: "While the first generation displays tendencies towards reduced fertility during establishment in the labor market, the second generation shows signs of segmented assimilation where childbearing is seen as an alternative career in the face of labor market difficulties" (Scott, Stanfors, 2009).

The effect of period patterns, country of origin, and the impact of migration on the childbearing behaviour of immigrants were examined by G. Andersson. He found that elevated levels of childbearing immediately after migration to Sweden give no immediate support for the notion of 'disruptions' in childbearing in connection with international and other long-distance migration (Andersson, 2001). T. Frejka and his co-authors in the result of their analyses conclude: "In general, immigrant women in Europe tend to have higher fertility than indigenous women, in particular shortly after immigration. Typical trends indicate a gradual decline of differentials between immigrants and natives as time since migration increases. Even though

immigrant fertility is relatively high, its impact on overall total fertility rates is rather small, mainly because the immigrant population constitutes only a fraction of the total population in most countries. Despite these pronounced initial differences, many immigrant groups converge in their fertility behaviour to native women quite rapidly. Especially women who immigrate as children are likely to have fertility levels similar to those of natives" (Frejka et al., 2008).

The interrelationship between migration and marital fertility, the effects of fertility on migration, and the effects of migration on the timing of births were analyzed by P. Lindstrom and S. Giorguli. They found evidence of both short-term disruption effects and longer-term adaptation and also women's migration to the United States before the first birth does not appear to disrupt the timing of the first birth, and evidence of selectivity. Finally, evidence from other countries suggests that a higher risk of first birth among immigrant women is due to the fact that migration and family formation are often connected events (Lindstrom, Giorguli, 2007).

Place of migration in demographic analysis was examined by P. Fargues. He explains that when people move from one country to another, they change their cultural, social and economic environment, as well as their individual position in the environment where they actually live. Such a change impacts on the way they behave, including matters related with demographic reproduction, like marriage and fertility (Fargues, 2004).

Analysis of migrant fertility within Central Asian context is provided by L. Nedoluzhko and G. Andersson. Their analysis of retrospective survey data from Kyrgyzstan shows that fertility levels are particularly high for women in the first year after migration and for those who move to rural areas and small towns (Nedoluzhko, Andersson, 2007). P. Nahmias described and compared fertility behaviour of the two large groups of immigrants, from the former Soviet Union (FSU) and from Ethiopia to Israel in the last 20 years. She found that fertility behaviour of immigrants is indeed changing. The fertility of the FSU immigrants is increasing and that of the Ethiopian immigrants is decreasing, with accompanying changes in the proximate determinants of fertility. Although the fertility of immigrants is becoming more similar to that of the receiving society, the methods employed to achieve the fertility change are not necessarily similar, and, in some cases, diverge from the norms of the receiving society (Nahmias, 2004). Unfortunately, reproductive behaviour of migrants was not issued in Kazakhstan. However, reproductive behaviour of women especially in Southern Kazakhstan and reproductive intentions of women in East Kazakhstan region were researched by A. Esimova and by the research team of A. Alekseenko respectively (Esimova, 2006, Alekseenko et al., 2006).

Many authors apply theoretical frameworks that explain reproductive behaviour of the migrants: stressing separation socialization, selectivity, disruption, assimilation, specific status of ethnic minority theory. Disruption suggests that immediately following migration, migrants show particularly low levels of fertility due to the disruptive factors associated with the migration process (Goldstein, 1973). Adaptation in contrast, assumes that reproductive behaviour of migrants, sooner or later, converges to that of the natives at the current place of residence (Goldstein, Goldstein, 1983). H. Hervitz describes the concepts of selectivity, adaptation and disruption similar to J. Goldestein (Hervitz, 1985). Goldberg emphasizes

socialization concept. He points out the critical role of social environment at the childhood place of residence. Values and norms dominant during childhood shape the migrant's behaviour in later stages of life (Goldberg, 1960). A. Genereux examined the differences in fertility between Senegalese women and Senegalese immigrant women in France. More specifically, he argued that immigration impacts gender roles and relations in both domains of adaptation, namely resources and cultural norms. Focusing on gender within the migration fertility nexus exploits the micro-processes involved in fertility behaviour change. He also wrote that the majority of Senegalese immigrants marry other Senegalese immigrants. Therefore, it is both Senegalese immigrant men and women who are negotiating their reproductive lives in a new environment and both who contribute to these rates (Geneau, 2006). E. Mussino and A. van Raalte in their findings suggest the following: Adaptation: The similarities in the risk profiles of our immigrants into vastly different country contexts are more suggestive of immigrants being of a distinct group rather than adapting or conforming to the native fertility patterns. Disruption and/or family formation: We were only able to construct a duration variable for the Russian model, however in this case the duration of stay in Russia did not have a significant impact on the fertility behaviour (Mussino, van Raalte, 2008). The main research interest of N. Milewski is the demographic behaviour of international migrants and its interplay with cultural factors. She considers that immigrant women exhibit significantly higher first-birth propensities than "native Germans", and that their fertility levels are elevated shortly after arrival in Germany (Milewski, 2007).

More than a quarter of a century ago the concept "value of children" had entered large comparative studies on socio-economic, cultural and psychological aspects of fertility. L. Hoffman and M. Hoffman (1973) developed a detailed theory of the value of children. They list a number of categories, describing potential values that parents might attribute to their children, such as: expansion of the self, affiliation, accomplishment, social comparison, economic utility. Thus parents may desire a sex mix because of the different benefits that accrue from each sex for each of the categories. Each partner, for example, might prefer to have at least one child of his or her own sex for the purpose of companionship (Hoffman, Hoffman, 1973).

C. Bühler using theories of interpersonal exchange and of the value of children argued that children can substantively alter and improve their parents' social networks. Individuals perceive this potential advantageous development as a structural benefit and consider this value in their reproductive decisions. Data from Bulgaria, collected in 2002, support this argument. The intentions of females and males to have a first or second child are positively influenced by at least one structural value. Women's intentions are promoted by the prospect that a child will bring their parents and relatives closer or will strengthen the bond with the partner. Male's intentions are closely associated with the expectation that a child will improve their security at an old age (Bühler, 2006). N. Makoshi and G. Trommsdorff in a comparative study attempt to clarify whether a transmission of values from generation to generation occurs, and whether mothers' value of children changes across time. Moreover, their study investigates whether mothers from different generations and cultures value children in a similar or different way. They investigated Japanese mothers' and grandmothers' value of children by focusing on (1) the advantages and disadvantages of having children and (2) on gender preferences and

expectations from sons and daughters. They found that Japanese mothers and grandmothers showed higher emotional than economic or practical value of children. Also, Japanese mothers and grandmothers valued children more positively than negatively and preferred daughters to sons (Makoshi, Trommsdorff, 2002).

G. Trommsdorff and B. Nauck examined the value of children in cross-cultural perspective in eight societies. They provide the first comprehensive overview on a large international study on the value of children and families in eight different sociocultural contexts. The editors and initiators of the study come from a psychological (G. Trommsdorff) and a sociological (B. Nauck) background, thus enabling an interdisciplinary perspective on the value of children. The secondary goal of the current project is to improve our understanding of dramatic socio-demographic changes all over the world, and to investigate the social and psychological conditions for having children and for child-rearing practices in different cultures. They find that the distinction between the following dimensions has proven to be empirically significant: economic-utilitarian VOC (i.e., contributions to the family economy from child labor, household help and additional income; old-age insurance), psychological-emotional VOC (i.e., strengthening emotional group ties; expressive stimulation through interaction with children). This distinction has been used in a number of follow up studies, and has proven its fruitfulness in worldwide cross-national comparisons and in migration research (Trommsdorff, Nauck, 2005). U. Henz presuming that not just economic circumstances but also ideational factors influence fertility decisions examined the values of children of East and West German childless men and women living with a partner. When comparing the values of children between East and West German men and women, several hypotheses about the values of children were not supported. Neither did she find a general regional difference in the affective value nor any general gender difference (Henz, 2008).

A growing literature develops the topic that sex preference has generally been assumed to have a significant effect on fertility behaviours. Nevertheless, many empirical studies have found weak or no effect of sex preference on such behaviour. Moreover, in recent periods, the total fertility rates of some strong son preference countries, such as China and Korea, have dropped below the replacement level without any change in these nations' strong sex preferences, and these low fertility rates have sometimes been regarded as permanent, not temporary phenomena. S. Lee provided evidence that son preference has an important effect on fertility behaviour in Korea. Statistical analysis shows that the existence of a son has a stronger effect on fertility behaviour in Korea than the number of children. The groups having only daughters show higher fertility rates than the other groups having at least one son. Since old age security and family lineage are regarded as the important reasons for wanting sons in Korea, he assumes that the relationship between sex composition of previous children and fertility behaviour may be weakened (or may disappear) when old-age security and family lineage are controlled. However, the coefficients of sex composition of previous children remained significant and did not decrease (Lee, 1995). Son preference has persisted in the face of sweeping economic and social changes in China, India and the Republic of Korea. M. Das Gupta and her colleagues attribute this to their similar family systems, which generate strong disincentives to raise daughters while valuing adult women's contributions to the household.

Urbanization, female education and employment can only slowly change these incentives without more direct efforts by the state and civil society to increase the flexibility of the kinship system so that daughters and sons can be perceived as being more equally valuable. They also argue that the economic pressures for son preference are culturally induced. The fact that sons are the main source of old age support is clearly culturally determined, as there is no intrinsic reason why parents cannot seek such support from their daughters as they do elsewhere in Asia. Nor can adequate pensions and savings offer peace of mind for one's old age, as long as people believe that they will be "hungry ghosts" in the afterlife unless sons provide the necessary rituals (Das Gupta et al., 2004). T. Lin explores the change of married women's sex preference for children in Taiwan since 1990. He found that there was a substantial decline of son preference and rise of "gender indifference", defined as feeling indifferent about children's sex (as opposed to desiring an equal number of boys and girls, in which the sex of children is still a secondary consideration). Results show that at the individual level female education was the strongest predictor for the preference; education was negatively associated with son preference and positively with gender indifference. Cohort difference was noticeable as well. Younger cohorts were better educated than older ones hence they were more neutral about the sex and less adherent to the traditional male preference. When the younger cohorts gradually replaced the older ones as the main child bearers in Taiwanese society, at the aggregate level son preference declined and gender indifference rose (Tin-chi Lin, 2009).

There are certain authors who examined changing views of migration among the Kazakh Diaspora in Mongolia, about decision not to migrate, nationalization, transnationalization, integration of Mongolia's Kazakhs and Kazakhstan's oralman project. C. Werner and H. Barcus outlined the three factors that appear to contribute substantially to the decision not to migrate, including local place attachments specific to Mongolia, increased access to information about life in Kazakhstan and the importance of maintaining social networks in Mongolia. They discuss the three factors that affect the decision making process, within a context where economic incentives for migration have been changing. These factors include the role of access to information, values related to place attachment, and the role of social networks. Their findings suggest that the decision not to migrate can be very strategic for non migrants in highly transnational contexts (Barcus, Werner, 2009).

A. Diener examined the complex case of Kazakhs of Mongolia as a result of intensive fieldwork in both Kazakhstan and Mongolia. He found that Western Mongolia was particularly devastated by the post- socialist transition, which simultaneously brought a decline in supply routes and employment opportunities. With reduced support from the state, there were few alternatives to herding, and the herding lifestyle became increasingly difficult. Hoping to abandon the herding lifestyle, many migrants left for Kazakhstan, the place which they imagine as a more modern and sophisticated than Mongolia. The decision to move away from Mongolia to Kazakhstan reflects both the economic situation in Mongolia during the transition period (push factors) as well as the lure of returning to what many (but not all) Mongolian Kazakhs perceive as their ancestral "homeland" (pull factor). Kazakh nationalists within the Kazakhstani government were particularly interested in recruiting Mongolian Kazakhs due to their strong preservation of Kazakh language and cultural practices. He illustrates the complexity and

dynamism of this multigenerational, diasporic community, while demonstrating that the link between identity and place, despite the effects of globalization, is far from eroding (Diener, 2009). The study, based on the A. Diener's interviews, explores obstacles to the integration of Mongolian-Kazakhs into Kazakhstani society and about return migration of ethnic Kazakhs from Mongolia to their ancestral homeland of Kazakhstan, and the adjustment problems confronting them upon return. He focuses on how changes in the cultural and demographic character of Kazakhstan have impeded the integration within that country (following return migration) of members of a multi-generational ethnic Kazakh community from Mongolia (hereafter "Mongolian-Kazakhs"), and how many members of this group feel more "placeless" and "foreign" in Kazakhstan than when living "abroad" (Diener, 2005a). He explained that "repatriates" often find their dreams of an ethnic homecoming shattered by the reality of the state's multicultural and largely russified society and about problems facing Oralmandar within Kazakhstan (Diener, 2005b). M. Sancak researched encounters with Kazakh diaspora returning to Kazakhstan based on field research conducted jointly with P. Finke in a village in south-eastern Kazakhstan in the summer and autumn of 1999 followed by a return visit in 2002. He examined patterns of interaction between locals and oralmans from China, those who live in village Aq Zhol (Sancak, 2007). I. Kuscu analyzed the public debate in Kazakhstan on the government's ethnic return migration policy. The analysis of the public debate in Kazakhstan is based primarily on an analysis of print media. She examined how nation-statists and civic-statists have treated socio-economic problems related to the return migration of diaspora, including housing, employment, language, citizenship, social integration, locals' attitudes towards oralmans, and policy implementation (Kuscu, 2008).

An extensive research on Oralmans and its results was summarized in the diploma thesis of S. Orazalyuly "Oralman's Matters: A complex View on ethnic Kazakhs repatriation" (Orazalyuly, 2010). This author examined ethnic Kazakh returnees from abroad and how they adapted in their "new place". He describes and analyzes all aspects of ethnic Kazakh repatriation project from the beginning, how are people returning, their cultural differences and behaviour, distribution on the territory of Kazakhstan, prospects of repatriation process and the final results of Kazakhstan's Project. He discussed many problems, such as functioning of the integration system, unemployment, lack of suitable housing and obstacles to successful integration of Oralmans into their ancestral Homeland. He clearly demonstrates that Kazakhstan needs to change the emphasis of its ethnic immigration policies from quantative targets to the quality and efficiency of the integration policies and programs. To overcome these obstacles and to achieve effective implementation of the program he has formulated several recommendations to simplify procedures and legislation in relation to Oralmans, to develop special programs of integration, to improve the existing central database and etc. (Orazalyuly, 2010).

4 Theoretical frameworks and facts

4.1 Sociological concepts

4.1.1 Socialization

The process of socialization can be explained as an important influence of the place of residence and social environment on repatriates' childhood. The dominant values and norms experienced in childhood influence the migrants during their adult life (Goldberg, 1959, 1960).

The process of personal socialization usually takes the whole life. As for repatriates, there are differences on the first stage of socializing (education) between the age groups of 17–19 and 25–29 years old and their parents. The latter were born and grew up in Kazakhstan following the norms of the new society. The following influencing indicators should be considered: family, school where they studied, friends and peers they communicated with after moving to Kazakhstan. The older age groups of 35–40 and 55–60 years grew up in Mongolia. That is why the cultural values and norms that they have learnt will influence their behaviour further on. However, the role of adaptation as the result of socializing should not be neglected. The influence of education of mothers on fertility and reproductive behaviour of repatriates is not statistically significant. They usually plan to have many children (see Figure 3, Figure 6). It is interesting to note that ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are usually more modern and education influences fertility (see Figure 3, Table 5). The changes in reproductive behaviour of repatriates are obvious among the young generation of 25–29 years old. About 50 % of them do not have children (see Figure 1), 41 % have suspended their marriage (see Table 10). As for educational factor, 57 % of educated women do not have children (see Figure 3, Table 5). Repatriates save their culture and traditions by living together with their parents and relatives and following their examples. For many young women the ideal family is that of her mother with the same number of children.

4.1.2 Assimilation

Assimilation is a process of merging with other cultural groups which involves sharing common feelings, principles, memories, experience and history and getting involved into cultural life. Assimilation in sociology is defined as the process of adopting a foreign culture and losing

one's own traits. Assimilation is usually accompanied by adaptation in the new place and integration to a new social environment. Soon repatriates adopt reproductive behaviour patterns of Kazakhstan.

However, the process of assimilation has not been observed among the repatriates from Mongolia. Intermarriages are one of the forms of assimilation. If taking into account this aspect, intermarriages do not take place among the repatriates. They marry only their fellow-countrymen. Assimilation rate depends on the closeness of social contacts.

4.1.3 Acculturation

Many researchers investigated impact of culture on fertility (Fernandez, Fogli, 2005), impact of migration on cultural changes of immigrants (Epstein, Gang, 2010; Heering et al., 2004; Chhetri, 1987; Bankston, 2009; Marcelo, Suarez, 2008; Curran, Saguy, 2001) and the effects of migration and acculturation on the family (Dettlaff, Rycraft, 2006). Previous research findings (Berry, 1976, 1988; Berry et al., 1987; Schmitz, 1992, 1994; Zheng, Berry, 1991) have shown that the individual effort to get acculturated can be experienced by an immigrant as stressful. An immigrant is confronted with a variety of problems, such as maintenance or change of his or her own cultural identity, and dealing with conflicts between different systems of values, beliefs and behaviours, namely those of the mainstream society, those of his or her own ethnic group, and those belonging to his or her own personal sphere (Schmitz, 1997).

Acculturation is described as the modification of the culture of a group or individual as a result of contact with a different culture. Culture affects not just our attitudes and beliefs toward our social environment. Culture has been described as the norms, values, beliefs and attitudes of group of people. These characteristics of culture are broadly based in societies (national culture) (Hofstede, 1980). Differences in cultural orientation have been associated with human recourse issues during integration (Jeanne et al; Gunter, Bjokman, 2006). According to Bates and Plog, "Culture is a system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviours, and artefacts that the members of a society use to cope with their world and with one another, and that are transmitted from generation to generation through learning"(Bates, Plog, 1976; Elhag, 2010). In our study we examined the challenges that repatriates face when they arrive to Kazakhstan and different mechanisms they used to adapt to the new life and how do migration and acculturation processes affect cultural values of repatriates. Specifically, this study compares the cultural values of repatriates who reside in Kazakhstan with those of ethnic Kazakhs who reside in Mongolia. The acculturation process is not a static process because changes in cultural values depend on the host surroundings where immigrants live, the people who they speak to the most, and a lot of other factors. Moreover, the constellation of acculturation factors produces very different experiences for different individuals (Seung, Douglas, 2003).

New environment and acculturation processes cannot influence cultural attitudes, beliefs and norms of repatriates (see Chapter 10). Attitudes to values of children, sex preferences of children, the role of a husband in a family is higher among the repatriates in Kazakhstan than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. However, attitude towards abortion of the second generation has changed (see Figure 40). First assumption is that repatriates are more traditional than local Kazakhs in Kazakhstan (see Chapter 5.1). Second assumption is that repatriates live

concentrated in one place and it helps them to keep their cultural orientation and save old environment behaviour. It means that Mongolia has a more individualistic culture and Kazakhstan has a more collectivistic one. The third assumption is that even the idea of divorce risk, because of the bad behaviour of a husband in a new country for repatriates from Kazakhstan is not permissible (see Chapter 10.3). Finally, behaviours of the second generation repatriates who were born and grew up in Kazakhstan have changed because of the influence of a more moderate Kazakhstan. With regard to the opinions of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs concerning the role of a husband in a family and the divorce risks of respondents the following questions were asked: if a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being or just the guarantor of the material well-being; if for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family should a wife get a divorce or a wife may divorce him only if she can support the children. This allows to test the hypotheses on the role of (i) childhood socialization in the country of origin for old age group of repatriates; (ii) there is no disruption in family life due to the migration event; (iii) adaptation of family's demographic behaviour to that prevalent in the country of destination; and (iv) divorce risks and differences in behaviours across repatriate groups especially among younger generation. The hypotheses on adaptation of family's demographic behaviour to that prevalent in the country of destination and divorce risks and the differences in behaviour across the repatriate groups especially among younger generation are proved. However, the role of a husband in repatriate families is important. For 25–29 and 35–40 years old repatriates a husband is the guarantor of financial and moral well-being of a family. There are no people among them who see a husband only as a financial supporter of a family. Younger repatriates believe that if a husband misbehaves, a woman must get a divorce. That shows how confident the young women are in comparison with older female respondents. They are not ready to cope with bad attitudes of their husbands. The older respondents believe that divorce is only possible in case if a woman can support her children herself. They are not comfortable with living as a single parent in a new country. The role of a husband is important for them. They are more traditional in this way. Ethnic Kazakhs of older age are more self-confident. It might be connected with the fact that they did not have to face the problems connected with migration. The support of a husband is important for repatriates even in the situation when his behaviour is not appropriate (see Table 40). The role of a husband in a family of respondents with lower education is more important than in a family of university graduates (see Table 42).

4.1.4 Adaptation

Adaptation processes of the migrants depend on the places they come from and destination points. The differences between urban and rural residents usually make this process harder. When in a city, a rural resident must adapt to a new pattern of behaviours. In a city a person experiences a new pace of life, new relations between neighbors, different interests, different household system (Rybakovski, 2001). Under the concept of adaptation the migrants are supposed to show the same reproductive behaviour as local residents after living in a country for some time (Goldstein, 1978; Goldstein, Goldstein, 1981).

According to generally accepted norms, adaptation period in a new place of residence usually takes up to 10 years. During this period repatriates have the chance to learn new social norms better. Some changes are already distinguishable within 5 years after moving. That is why it was assumed that repatriates postponed the child birth and used birth control before getting some financial and social stability. "As part of the Kazakh diaspora, oralmans (repatriates) for the most part have conserved traditional aspects of Kazakh culture, traditions and lifestyle. This situation may or may not foster cultural integration. Two variables are particularly noteworthy in this respect: country of origin and region of resettlement. This is evident for example in southern Kazakhstan (South Kazakhstan, Zhambyl, Kyzylorda and Manghistau oblasts), which demonstrates greater adherence to national Kazakh culture and traditions. In these regions, oralmans' socio-cultural adaptation appears to occur more easily than in northern and central regions. Oralmans are found to face greater difficulties integrating into northern and central regions. This can be explained by the more pluralistic cultural landscape. Dating from the Soviet period, Kazakh culture in these areas was significantly impacted by the presence of other cultural and ethnic groups. In particular, the prevalence of the Russian language and culture in these regions means that oralmans who are settled there in general require more time to adapt to the local environment" (UNDP, 2006). "Cultural adaptation and integration of Oralmans varies among different migrant groups. The main barriers to the adaptation of in-country migrants obstacles of everyday life, while for immigrants and Oralmans the main problems involve language (not sufficient speaking skills in Kazakhs and/or Russian) and cultural barriers" (Orazalyuly, 2010).

Adaptation is closely connected with creating necessary living conditions. When these two processes are interconnected, it will fasten adaptation a lot. The first couple of years allow repatriates to get stability and to adapt to a new social environment. Repatriates have already adapted which does not prove the influence of adaptation on reproductive behaviour of repatriates.

4.1.5 Selection

The concept of selectivity also emphasizes the importance of childhood environment of the migrants. According to this point of view, migrants are a specific group of people whose reproductive behaviour resembles that of local residence than of those they used to live with (Ribe, Schultz, 1980). Based on the concept of selectivity, migration is a selective process that selects certain individuals who are already prepared to adopt the norms of demographic behaviour of a country of destination and seek to follow them before leaving. If we consider the case of moving from the area with high fertility to the area with low fertility, then according to the concept of selectivity, a migrant is already oriented to have fewer children (Coldestain, Coldestain, 1981).

The research showed the relevance of the concept of selectivity towards repatriates. The first characteristic which they have in common is the purpose of moving to a new place of residence. They were supported by a special program which is connected with the decree issued on November 18, 1991. The decree contained major rules and regulations on moving to Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic (KSSR) of Kazakhs living in other republics of the USSR and abroad

who would like to work in agricultural sector of KSSR which was in deep crisis at that time. This decree was aimed at regulating the immigration process of Kazakhs into the country and at the development of Kazakh aul (village) and agriculture. Supported by the new decree, large families of repatriates started moving to Kazakhstan.

4.1.6 Disruption

The theory of stress disruption of the life cycle implies lower fertility and union dissolution after migration due to some negative factors of the migration itself. This theory explains migration as a process that interrupts a normal pace of an individual life cycle (Goldstein, 1973; Goldstein, Goldstein, 1982). Migration is a stressful life event that may be related to subsequent marital instability. Moving twice or more over short distances also increases the risk of separation. Moving to short distances (even if it does improve housing circumstances) can be stressful. Migrating over a long distance frequently (twice or more) is likely to be stressful, involving the disruption of the local ties and social networks (Boyle et al., 2008).

According to this concept, it can be assumed that a repatriate will give birth to the majority of planned children in the country of immigration at older age with specific genetic and intergenetic intervals. "One would therefore expect elevated fertility after migration, although a competing theory states that on the contrary fertility ought to be reduced with time around the move because migration temporarily disturbs the life of the migrant" (Hoem, Nedoluzhko, 2008). The final number of children will depend on the success of integration into the new social environment and if the marriage intentions are realized.

However, it was found that stress disruptions after migration did not influence the life of repatriates. They continued to give birth to children despite the difficulties in a new place of residence. Thus, repatriates have more children than ethnic Kazakhs (see Figure 1). The repatriates try to save their marriages. Being single in a new country is very difficult for them. It means that the repatriates keep giving birth to children even after moving to another country because children are the guarantors of a sound marriage, financial support of the state, supporters for the household and after the retirement (see Chapter 10.3, see Chapter 10.8). Even the idea of divorce risk because of the bad behaviour of a husband in a new country for repatriates from Kazakhstan is not permissible (see Chapter 10.3, see Chapter 4.1.3).

4.1.7 Social mobility

The society is going through a constant process of development changing its status. This phenomenon is called social mobility. Moving to a new place is an important component of social mobility. Mobility depends on the number of moving, on how long the person lived in the place of his/her origin or in the place where he/she moved, etc. As a result of moving to a new social environment, repatriates change their old life style and social network, they face many everyday problems. Each person has to show tremendous will power for self-realization in the new environment. These people with their old selves start a completely new life. During a short period of time repatriates have to adapt to a new environment as it will influence their expenditures on future children.

The following important results must be considered. First, the research showed that repatriates who live in Karazhal-Zhairem region can be divided into two groups. The first group includes the people who could adapt in a new place. The second group of repatriates could not adjust to the new environment. It should be mentioned that the government supports all repatriates equally and people from both groups were given the same amount of necessary resources such as irretrievable allowance, full coverage of the expences (transportation costs, housing, cattle, etc.) Repatriates were granted comfortable houses in the town of Zhairem, some of them worked as cattle-breeders on the state farm in Zhairem. But towns do not provide good conditions to breed the cattle. That is why many repatriates moved to the abandoned military barracks that is situated 4 kilometers further from the town. Nowadays 70 families of repatriates live there. They usually do seasonal jobs. The first group lives in the comfortable cottages of Zhairem. They are well-integrated and own the majority of private shops in Zhairem.

Second, it is assumed that repatriates who moved from agrarian Mongolia experience intergeneration mobility, or so called "social career". The children of repatriates have higher social status than their parents (age groups of 35–40, 55–60 years) who after coming to Kazakhstan had low-skilled jobs (shepherds, dairymaids, drivers and etc). Their children, however, have higher education and work as teachers, journalists, etc. Unfortunately, not all repatriates could change their social status. All repatriates can be divided into two groups: those who changed their social status and those who gained less success. Repatriates of the second group live in the military barracks and dachas without all necessary living conditions. However, public opinion poll revealed that living conditions did not influence the actual number of children and both groups show the same pattern of such behaviour (see Figure 2).

Three factors, including local place attachments specific to Mongolia, access to information about life in Kazakhstan and the importance of maintaining social networks in Mongolia contribute substantially to their decision not to migrate. Decision not to migrate can be very strategic for nonmigrants in highly transnational contexts. Despite overwhelming cultural and economic incentives to move to Kazakhstan, including many benefits offered by the Kazahstani government, and economic hardships faced by residing in a remote province of Mongolia, many Mongolian Kazakhs have chosen to remain in Mongolia (Werner, Barcus, 2009). The following three factors affect the decisionmaking process for migration. These factors include the role of access to information, values related to place attachment, and the role of social networks. First, the availability and quality of information accessible to a potential migrant influences both the decision to move and the choice of destination. In global settings today, information can come from many different sources including television, internet, newspapers, magazines, friends, and family. The ability to communicate easily over long distances and for relatively low costs reduces the barrier of geographic distances and broadens interaction among individuals, allowing to share the ideas and to extend individuals' experience without any necessity to travel or migrate (Adams, 1995; Janelle, 1991).

In order to evaluate social mobility of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia we asked several questions about future moving and the best country for living (see Chapter 9.4 and 9.5). It is important to consider how the opinions of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia have changed before making a decision to migrate and after the beginning of the repatriation from

1991. At the beginning of repatriation to Kazakhstan repatriates had very little information about what life would be like if they chose to migrate to Kazakhstan. Ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia today have multiple sources of information and thus are making more informed decisions to migrate or not to migrate. One of the main sources of information is their contact with relatives and friends who have already migrated, and ethnic Kazakhs have visited relatives in Kazakhstan several times. Despite overwhelming cultural and economic incentives to move to Kazakhstan, including the many benefits offered by the Kazahstani government and economic hardships faced by residing in a remote province of Mongolia, many Mongolian Kazakhs have chosen to remain in Mongolia (Werner, Barcus, 2009).

4.1.8 Social Networks

Social networks concept is a connection between the migrants and their friends and families which stayed at home and initiate new migrational shifts (Hugo, 1981; Casterline, Montgomery, 1998).

Usually migrants choose the country of destination if their relatives or fellow countrymen live there. Existence of the communities (diaspora) is also taken into consideration by low-skilled migrants who adapt to a new environment due to the social networking with the fellow countrymen in a new place. Relatives, friends and acquaintances provide the migrants with all the necessary information during the first stages of adaptation, with a place to stay, financial help and assistance in finding a job (Capenko, 2008).

While talking to the repatriates, it was found out that the first wave of repatriates in Karazhal- Zhairem region consisted of those who came on the basis of working agreements. Later their relatives came because of a family reunification reason. The relatives were moving from Mongolia and other regions of Kazakhstan. Even if they were given a different place to stay, eventually, they would come to the region where their relatives have already been living. Many repatriates who live in Zhairem now moved from Taldikurdan in Almaty region and from Semei in the East Kazakhstan region.

4.2 Demographic concepts

4.2.1 Demographic transition theory and the second demographic transition

There are transition theories in demography which define the types of population replacement in the countries. Could they be applied to Central Asian countries because of the differences in economic and social development, religion, and etc.?

Demographic revolution theory (demographic transition theory) describes the changes in the types of population replacement. The first stage is characterized by the high level of mortality and the high level of natality as a result of underdeveloped medicine and unfavorable living conditions. During the next stage with the development of medicine and industry, the level of mortality lowers, while the level of natality remains high. During the third stage the level of mortality and natality decreases. The fourth stage is characterized by the stabilization of natality and mortality on the low levels. According to this theory, all countries and people go through

the same stages of the demographic evolution and have a certain type of population replacement (Subrtova, 1984).

In this research reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia in the context of demographic revolution and the second demographic transition will be considered. The characteristics of the research object will be defined.

The second demographic transition is characterized by the level of natality being lower than the level of reproduction, the use of birth control, postponing to have children and parental duties. Cohabitation and individualism become more popular. This phenomenon can be explained by the change in values (availability of birth control, economic independence of men and women, changes in the labor market) in combination with historical factors. In more developed countries the fertility is lower, however, "development" as an indicator cannot give predictions of fertility level.

After the collapse of the USSR, Kazakhstan faced demographic crisis which influenced the following rates: natality level, the age of the first pregnancy, divorce rates, etc. and make it similar to the rates in Western countries. The level of mortality became higher than that in the Soviet times. After the independence of Kazakhstan, a big outflow of migrants was observed, which influenced population size. That is why Kazakhstan launched its community (Diaspora) policy. It was quite successful, and at the moment Kazakhstan is on the level of demographic transition to the fourth stage with high natality and low mortality.

In Bayan-Ulgii aimag in Mongolia the demographic situation is on the first stage of demographic transition with high levels of natality and mortality. In 1991, total fertility rate equaled to 3.9 children in Mongolia and 2.7 children in Kazakhstan. Starting from 1992 this indicator started to decrease to 3.5 in Mongolia, and in 1993 it constituted 2.6 children per woman. It was almost similar to Kazakh indicator of 2.5 children per woman (see Appendix 9). It is connected with the fact that repatriates began to leave Mongolia in 1992 which boosted the natality level in Kazakhstan and decreased it in Mongolia. From the other hand, Mongolia shifted to free market economy in 1993 which can also explain such a change. In 2007 the aggregated indicator of fertility rate in Bayan-Ulgii aimag was 3.2 children, in Mongolia 2.9 children per woman. Bayan-Ulgii aimag is the first in Kazakhstan according to the levels of natality and mortality. The biggest problems in Mongolia are the distances between aimags, maternal mortality and the lack of infrastructure. "The maternal mortality ratio per 100,000 live births was 259 in 1993 and it was the highest indicator during the past period. The ratio decreased to 88 in 2007, 49 in 2009 at the national level" (NSOM, 2008). The maternal mortality closely correlates with reproductive health issues. Besides, maternal mortality relates to mother's age, birth interval, health care services and education. We suppose, it can also be explained by the difficulties of getting to the hospital in aimags. According to vice-akim of Bayan-Ulgii aimag, "there is no such a tendency as maternal mortality among ethnic Kazakhs in Bayan-Ulgii aimag. High natality and low mortality are observed. Despite the fact that 80,000 Kazakhs left Bayan-Ulgii aimag, the Kazakh population grows. There were 94 000 Kazakhs in 1991 and the population size stayed the same in 2009" "Interview from vice-akim of Bayan-Ulgii (23.07.2009)".

According to local gynecologists from Bayan-Ulgii, health conditions of the population of aimags are bad and the lack of professional gynecologists is observed in each somone. The diseases such as system lupus erythematosis are included in the category of maternal mortality.

In Karazhal-Zhairem region the society is quite traditional. Recently, the characteristics of the second demographic transition were observed. As the local population prevails, the influence of other nationalities on reproductive behaviour of the local Kazakhs is not considerable. After the independence of Kazakhstan, the big outflow of migrants of other nationalities was observed and the town became literally empty. Even today there are a lot of abandoned houses there. When the town was being built, it was planned that 75,000 people would live there. In 2009 only 9,000 people including 1,099 repatriates lived in Zhairem (see Appendix 4).

4.2.2 The main difference of demographic transitions

The first main difference between the first and the second demographic transition is the opposite evolution in marriage characterized by such tendencies as cohabitation before marriage, the shifting of the average marriage age, extra-marital fertility, abortions (Lesthaeghe, Nells, 2002). However, these tendencies were not observed among the repatriates. The majority of repatriates get married with their fellow countrymen from Mongolia. They face new living conditions and it is assumed that both people in a matrimonial union contribute to the reproductive behaviour. The results of the research showed that cohabitation before marriage and extra-marital fertility, abortions among the repatriates from Mongolia and the Kazakh communities (Diaspora) in Mongolia who live in Bayan-Ulgii aimag do not take place. According to the Muslim laws, the intimacy before “neka” (marriage) and extramarital children are prohibited.

The second difference between the transitions is divorce and re-marriage. According to the results of the public opinion poll, divorce and re-marriage were not observed. It will be difficult for repatriates to lose their partner in a new place of residence and as they do not get married to the local Kazakhs, they will try their best to save their family.

It should be mentioned that the factors that determine the second demographic transition have not yet reached the Kazakhs from Bayan-Ulgii. It is explained by the fact that the community (Diaspora) that lives in another country preserves its Muslim traditions and cultural values more than the people of the same nation who live in their own country. But the fact that rural population of Kazakhstan is more traditional than urban population must be considered as well. That is why the local population cannot influence reproductive behaviour of repatriates considerably.

4.2.3 Moderniztion

Modernization Theory is a theory of social and economic development. According to theories of modernization each society can develop from traditionalism to modernity. In our study we will try to connect modernization with fertility level of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia and to confirm the following research hypothesis: reproductive intentions

of repatriates will depend on the impact of these new living conditions (financial well-being, living environment, etc.). The next hypothesis assumes that the socio-economic changes of the new environment will have stimulating effect on the fertility of the returnees. How the qualities of life depend on the educational level of respondents and how living conditions will influence fertility.

Living standards of repatriates' families after repatriation to Kazakhstan have changed accordingly since they lived nomadic life style before migration and after migration they were settled. Since improvement of the living conditions and welfare of the population are the most important criteria influencing fertility it would be interesting to see how socio-economic and cultural changes in the new areas influenced reproductive intentions of repatriates, in a depressive or stimulating way. The evaluation of living conditions will include financial situation of the family, housing conditions of the family, acute problems of respondents, the best country for residence, opinions of respondents about changing the life conditions of the family during the past 10 years and family income. An attempt will be made to investigate whether these factors are related to a decrease or an increase of fertility levels.

Living standard is a category which characterizes people's welfare, human consumption of material, cultural, social benefits and services in conjunction with the terms of a potential to meet the needs (Narodonaselenie: Enciklopedichesky slovar, 1994). Improved living conditions and welfare of the population is an important criteria influencing fertility. The relationship between fertility and living standard is discussed in many papers of various authors. Malthus argued that fertility is positively associated with quality of life among the people living below or near the subsistence level. When the standard of living is relatively low, the birth rate has a positive impact on living standard. When the standard of living is moderate, then the birth rate will have a negative impact on living standard. Finally, when the standard of living is high, fertility will have no effect on the standard of living. It remains to be noted about the economic and social value of children. When the standard of living is low, the value of children will be primarily economic. When the standard of living increases, the balance between economic and social value of children varies (Woods, 1983). Changes in the birth rate also depend on such factors as rural or urban areas, as well as the level of education and household income (Moultrie, Timaeus, 2001).

One of the most important socio-economic parameters which characterized each family is financial situation. The analysis of the financial situation according to the age groups of respondents revealed that young people face financial difficulties when buying expensive goods and clothes. People from the older age groups usually do not have enough money and they have to borrow constantly. This can be explained by the large size of their families and spending their entire salaries on supporting the family members (see Chapter 9.1). The majority of respondents from rural and urban areas are worried about being able to afford expensive goods. Interesting situation was observed in remote areas in Mongolia where almost half of respondents considered themselves to be able to afford everything, the majority of the population in bags are cattle-breeders (see Table 25). The lifestyle of the cattle-breeders and people in cities (see Appendix 24) and somons (see Appendix 28) is very different, that is why the priorities might be different as cattle-breeders live in yurts and follow a nomadic lifestyle

with their herds (see Appendix 29). Less educated women always experience financial difficulties, constantly borrow money as they do not have enough for daily life. However, being able to afford expensive items is the problem for all respondents despite their educational level. Women with higher education are satisfied with their financial situation as they have more possibilities to find well-paid jobs (see Table 26). The families in Kazakhstan are mostly facing the financial difficulties despite the fact that the standard of living and well-being in Kazakhstan and Mongolia are not the same. Mongolia is an underdeveloped, poor country in comparison with Kazakhstan.

Living conditions determine the needs in children, the demand on the housing market. The income of a family makes the demand solvent. Based on those studies we take groups of returnees who have moved to Kazakhstan from 1991 to 1993 with labor agreements, those without quotas, and those who have already been living in the region for almost 18 years. "Whereas those included under the quota system receive some assistance, those arriving outside the quota must arrange housing independently. Local authorities (*akimats*) can provide them with some financial assistance; however, resources are largely insufficient" (UNDP, 2006).

This group of returnees without quotas is considered to be the most important object for comparison, and only through them we can find any changes in the behaviour of immigrants. Housing conditions of respondents from Kazakhstan are better in comparison with those from Mongolia (see Figure 16). The study revealed considerable variance of housing conditions according to educational level of respondents. Respondents with only secondary education have more difficulties in comparison with the others (see Figure 18). Repatriates with higher education have more troubles than ethnic Kazakhs. However, the majority of respondents are satisfied with their living conditions. Childless respondents do not have their own houses. They live either with their relatives or rent flats/houses. Such a situation influences family planning. This proves the hypothesis that the living conditions influence family planning process in case of the childless women. More than a quarter of those participated in the survey are women with one to three children. However, housing conditions of women with many children are much better in comparison with the others in both countries (see Figure 19).

The analysis of the acute problems by age groups revealed that respondents are worried about low income and expensive public transport in the first place despite the place of residence. Respondents of the younger generation at the age of 17–19 years are worried about bad living conditions and the lack of personal prospects. It means that the living conditions where the young generation lives are below the modern requirements, young people's opinions about their living situation differ from their parents' as they compare their living conditions with those of the local Kazakhs. Older people are satisfied with little and can sometimes hide some information. As for 25–29 years old repatriates, they are worried about low income and the lack of housing. The older generation is worried about the quality of the medical services the most. Low income, the lack of housing and bad quality of the medical services influence fertility negatively and are very problematic for respondents who live in Kazakhstan. It proves the following hypothesis: when life standards are low, fertility may improve the standards of life (Malthus). The expensive public transport is a big problem for all respondents despite the number of children and the place of residence (see Chapter 9.3.2, Chapter 9.3.4). Despite the

bad living conditions in abandoned barracks where many houses lack basic amenities and in some cases are unfit for habitation the second group of repatriates who did not manage to integrate into the new society considers Kazakhstan as a better place. "As oralmans are often unable to afford housing improvements and as government assistance is not available for such improvements, individuals can spend long periods of time living in sub-standard conditions. In addition, the lack of tap water, electricity or gas in some rural areas affect entire settlements or villages inhabited by oralmans. Oralmans together with village residents who do not have central water supply usually get water from a few water-pumps, wells and sometimes even from outflows coming from cities, consequently increasing the risk of diseases in such settlements" (UNDP, 2006). Some of these problems are similar to the problems of respondents from remote areas.

The diffusion of the information from the relatives in Kazakhstan to the relatives in Mongolia should not be neglected in this case. The social research revealed that fertility rate of repatriates is much higher than that of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia despite the living conditions of the new environment. Bayan-Ulgii aimag is economically underdeveloped and influences respondents negatively. The changes in the reproductive behaviour are typical for repatriates of the second generation who were born and grew up in Kazakhstan. New environment influences repatriates positively. For the mothers of many children the quality of life has significantly improved during the last decade (see Table 39). It proves the hypothesis about the stimulating influence of social and economic changes on the fertility of respondents.

4.2.4 Quantity-quality theory

The basic examples that we will discuss here focus on the roles of the cost of children, the relationship between fertility and family income, and education. Our hypothesis is that children are viewed as an investment providing old-age security and wealthier families want fewer children which is called the quantity-quality hypothesis. The idea is that the demand for child quality naturally leads wealthier parents to want more quality and thus less quantity what is often called the quantity-quality hypothesis (Schultz, 2006). There is a lot of evidence that fertility is negatively related to income in most countries. This finding has been confirmed across time and for different countries. For example, Jones and Tertilt document a negative cross-sectional relationship between income and fertility in the United States and find that the relationship has been surprisingly stable over time (Jones, Tertilt, 2007). Low incomes cause high fertility only if the elasticity of substitution between consumption and the number of children is high. However, some authors find a positive association between income and fertility over the business cycle (e.g. Simon (1969, 1977), and Mikevska and Zak (2002) for Central and Eastern Europe). Butz and Ward (1979), on the other hand, find that fertility has been counter-cyclical in recent U.S. data (Jones, et al., 2008). Many studies in India have taken into account the role of income in relation to fertility and most of them, for example Sinha's, Anand's and Srinivasan's, have depicted that fertility decreases as income increases. Reddy finds that income is directly related to favourable attitudes to family planning, irrespective of caste (Kaur, 2000).

The minimum subsistence level in Kazakhstan in July 2009 was estimated by The Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan at KZT 12,948 (150,71/$1) per person (Profinance News, 2009). As shown in Figure 25 (Chapter 9.7.2), according to the survey, 37 % and 46 % of repatriates according to the place of residence have monthly monetary incomes between KZT 20,000 and 30,000. Therefore repatriates' wages per family are not much higher than the national basic subsistence income. Family incomes of respondents with large families are similar in both countries. Women with minimal income prevail in Kazakhstan. The exceptions are the childless women with low family income. The influence of the income on fertility is proven (see Figure 27). However, the hypothesis of transition from quantity to quality was not proven. Childless repatriates or those with one-two children have minimal income; they do not get any support from the government as no grants are available for those with one-two children in Kazakhstan. The repatriates with three or four children and large families have high family incomes, every month they are entitled for governmental grants/benefits. The hypothesis that the wealthier a family is, the fewer children they have, is not confirmed for the repatriates in Kazakhstan. The analysis shows that the more children there are in a family the higher the average income is. Those with one or two children or without any are poor. However, the results for Mongolia are different. Ethnic Kazakhs with fewer children have higher incomes. Large families are, as a rule, poor. Differences among the distributions of women according to family income within the education structures are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. In both countries respondents with higher education and no family income can be found. Ethnic Kazakhs have higher average family income than the repatriates. The analysis revealed that women with higher education have higher income than less educated women (see Figure 26).

4.3 Reproductive behaviour

Fertility depends on reproductive behaviour, intentions and motivation of people. Reproductive behaviour is a system of activities and relations that mediate the birth of a child or the refusal of having a child in or outside marriage. This definition was first given by the Russian demographer, V. Borisov (1970). Often this term is used to describe the intentions to have a child, the desired number of children, etc. According to sociologist A. Antonov (2003), the term "reproductive behaviour" was borrowed from biology. Demography explains that natality depends not only on the biological ability to reproduce descendants, but on the socio-economic structure of the society, the system of values, moral principles, the way of life. That is why fertility is subject to changes.

Reproductive behaviour is dependent on the necessity of having children. There are three types of reproductive behaviour: the necessity to have many children (5 and more), the necessity to have the average number of children (3–4) and the necessity to have a few children (1–2). Reproductive behaviour is influenced by present and past events. Present events influence the decision to have a child. Regulation of the individual reproductive behaviour scheme shows the interconnection between the main elements of its structure and the necessity to have a child as being the important one (see Appendix 10).

The living conditions determine the level of the individual need in children which is usually the same throughout the person's life because the necessity of children is the result of following the particular model of reproductive behaviour and is connected with the norms and rules of the society. Having many or fewer children is often reflected in the traditions and customs. Thus, the necessity to have children is the most conservative part of people's reproductive behaviour. However, it can still be changed. In the modern society the level of infant mortality is decreasing, the functions of a family are being changed and the birth control is being used. The decision of having fewer children is connected with women's career plans. The majority of women want to gain personal success which decreases the necessity in children. The model of 1–2 children in a family has become very popular. In order to define the level of children necessity the method of public opinion poll is used in demography. Respondents were asked about the ideal, desired and planned number of children. The ideal number of children reflects the socially accepted norm of reproductive behaviour. The desired number of children shows the readiness to give birth to a certain number of children having all the necessary conditions. The planned number of children shows that people are thinking about their present living situation and future perspective changes in their family. Among the respondents prevails the proportion of women who consider four children as ideal (34 %), desired (29 %) and planned (30 %) (see Table 11, Table 13). The research results of the differences in reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are described in details in the Result 1.

4.4 Theory of planned behaviour

Theory of planned behaviour is a theory about the link between attitudes and behaviour. It helps to understood how people's behaviour can change under certain factors. It was proposed by Icek Ajzen and Fishbein's as an extension of the theory of reasoned action in 1975 (Ajzen, Fishbein, 1975). Intentions are seen as directly dependent on three components. First, "individual" factors, such as personality traits, mood, emotion, intelligence, values, stereotypes, general attitudes, experience. Second, "social" factors, such as education, age, gender, income, religion, race, ethnicity and culture. Third, "informative" factors, such as knowledge, media, and intervention (Ajzen, Fishbein, 2005). According to these models, people's evaluations or attitudes toward behaviour are determined by their accessible beliefs about the behaviour, where a belief is defined as the subjective probability that the behaviour will produce a certain outcome (Ajzen, 1988, 1991; Ajzen, Fishbein, 2005). Attitudes are the key constructs in psychology and in the studies of social change. An attitude can be defined as "the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question" (Ajzen, 1991). Attitudes have frequently been used as explanatory factors in demographic studies of childbearing intentions and behaviour. In our study we will try to use them in order to examine values of children, attitude towards abortion, gender preferences of respondents, and the role of a husband in a family.

4.4.1 Value of children

More than a quarter of a century ago the concept "value of children" had entered large comparative studies on socio-economic, cultural and psychological aspects of fertility. Many authors have investigated in their studies the concept of value of children (Hoffman, Hoffman, 1973; Hoffman et al., 1978; Bühler, 2006; Henz, 2006; Makoshi, Trommsdorff, 2002; Trommsdorff, Nauck, 2005; Trommsdorff et al., 2002, 2005; Surkyn, Lesthaeghe, 2004; Lackland, 2001). This study included extensive surveys in the USA, Taiwan, Japan, South Korea, the Philippines, Thailand, Indonesia, Singapore, and Turkey which arc documented in the country monographs published by the East-West Population Institute in the East-West-Centre in Honolulu, Hawaii (Arnold et al., 1975). "The theory of the Value of Children intends to understand fertility as an outcome of purposeful decision-making by referring to parental needs being met by children (Bulatao, Fred, 1977; Hoffman, Hoffman, 1973; Bühler, 2006). The theory of the Value of Children is developed by Hoffman and Hoffman. On the basis of empirical studies they stated nine categories of children's values which were transformed into several items and asked in the 1970s study (Suckow, Klaus, 2002). They list a number of categories, describing potential values that parents' might attribute to their children, such as: expansion of the self, affiliation, accomplishment, social comparison, economic utility. Thus parents may desire a sex mix because of the different benefits that accrue from each sex for each of the categories" (Jacobsen et al., 1999; Hank, Kohler, 2000).

Later the analysis of this item pool could reduce those values to three dimensions 1) Psychological-emotional value of children; 2) Economic-utilitarian value of children; 3) Social-normative value of children (Kagitcibasi, Esmer 1980; Nauck, 1989). Psychological-emotional reasons for having children for instance are: "to have someone to love and care for", "because of the pleasure you get from watching children grow" and "because it's fun to have young children around the house". Statements such as "because a child helps around the house" (Mathur, 1995), "to have one more person to help the family economically" or "children can help when you're old" illustrate the economic-utilitarian dimension. The dimension of social-normative value of children is expressed by the reasons such as "to carry on the family name" or "because parenthood improves your standing and betters your reputation among your kin" (Suckow, Klaus, 2002).

More specifically, our study investigates "the values of a child" among the respondents' opinions from different generations. Here, the two aspects will be analyzed in a more detailed way: (1) the reasons that stimulate repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia to have children (see Chapter 10.8) and (2) respondents' gender preferences for children (Chapter 10.2). The following questions were asked: what stimulates people to have children and if they would continue having children until they have a male child. The hypothesis that the new environment and society will influence the moral and cultural values of repatriates was proved. It is also assumed that the difficulties of the migration help to make cultural and traditional values and behaviour of repatriates stronger. The repatriates try to save their marriages (see Chapter 10.3). Being single in a new country is very difficult for them. It means that the repatriates keep giving birth to children even after moving to another country because children are the guarantors of a sound marriage, financial support of the state, supporters for the household and

after the retirement. The empirical analysis investigates all three values of categories of the reasons that stimulate people to have children. Despite the age groups, place of residence, educational level of respondents and real number of children, the main reasons for respondents in both countries are continuation of the bloodline, support when retired and assurance of husband's love and respect as the most important one. The economic value of children as having social benefits from the state, helping the household, keeping a husband in a family and having a male child are important for repatriates in Kazakhstan and less important for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (see Table 53a, see Table 53b). Regardless of the number of children, getting social benefits from the state is the major stimulating reason for repatriates from Kazakhstan, i.e. economic reason prevails (see Table 56 a, see Table 56b).

4.4.2 Gender preferences

Gender preferences for children have been a prominent issue in demographic works on developing countries for a long time (Anderson et al., 2004, 2006; Das et al., 2004; Hank, Kohler, 2000, 2002; Li et al., 1998; Yamamura, 2009; Almond, 2009; Semeniuk, 1994; Gordon Moretti, 2008; Fuse, 2008) in China and other countries (Li et al., 2005; Knight et al., 2008; Maureen et al., 1998; Burges, Zhuang, 2001, 2002), Korea (Min, 2007), Pakistan (Safdar et al., 2007; Miller, 1983; Hussain et al., 2000), India (Goldstein, 2008; Nasir, Kalla, 2006; Borooah, Kumar, 2010), Africa (Gangadharan, Maitra, 1999; Basu, Jong, 2007). "Sex preference has generally been assumed to have a significant effect on fertility behaviours (Cain, 1993; Mason, 1993; Nugent, 1985; Malhi, 1995). Nevertheless, many empirical studies have found weak or no effect of sex preference on such behaviour (Arnold, 1987; Cleland, Verrall, and Vaessen 1983; Repetto, 1972), while evidence of a relationship between the sex composition of previous children and fertility behaviours has been reported" (Das, 1987; Lee, 1995).

The need for "having sons to continue generations" has been the central family value in Kazakh society for centuries. This value has remained resistant to any socioeconomic changes and external influences. However, human reproduction is greatly influenced by culture and culture may explain why the population of a geographic region or an ethnic group continues to grow in mostly the same way over time even though economic and demographic conditions change (Hammel, 1990). We suggest that socio-cultural factors should be regarded as important determinants of different sex preferences of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. It is known that people in many countries give preferences to male children. Moreover, the reasons given for son preference also differ as cultural factors of son preferences and economic factors. In India the main cause is the need to pay dowries for daughters. In the context of China it has been suggested that stringent fertility regulation is responsible for heightened discrimination against daughters. In South Korea, son preference is attributed more to patriarchal family systems and low female autonomy. In South Korea and China son preference is sometimes also attributed to Confucian values (Das et al., 2004). In traditional societies, male offsprings are presumed to have greater economic net utility than daughters since they provide assistance in agriculture as well as a primitive social security system. In some situations, however, daughters are thought to be more reliable in providing old age assistance, particularly emotional support. "They are also frequently desired in order to help with household tasks or to care for younger

children. Sons, on the other hand, quite often fill sex specific religious roles and insure kinship continuity in patrilineal societies" (Wood, Bean, 1977). However, even in societies with pervasive son preference, many families consider it important to have at least one daughter among their children (Arnold, 1997; Hank, Kohler, 2000).

In this study we investigate whether parents prefer one sex over the other, or a mixed sex composition of their offspring (see Chapter 10.2). Repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia were asked to reply if they would continue having children until they have a male child and about the practice of having children until a male child is born (Chapter 10.1). The hypothesis along the lines that more traditional and agricultural societies tend to prefer boys (in Mongolia), while more progressive societies tend to prefer girls or a sex-mix (in Kazakhstan), cannot be supported by our findings (Arnold, 1987; Clelet et al., 1983; Repetto, 1972). The results regarding gender preferences of the child revealed that the influence of respondents' age on their opinions concerning the practice of giving birth to a son is statistically insignificant. Despite the country of residence and age group, respondents have almost similar opinions and consider such practice to be wrong (see Figure 28) and the majority of respondents from both countries did not show strong preferences for a male child (see Figure 32). The hypothesis stating that women living in remote areas accept such practice was not proved. Such a result was not expected among the female respondents provided that the preference of child's sex (male) was always certain in rural areas. Most of respondents from those areas are shepherds and cattle-breeders (see Figure 29). However, in Mongolia which is mostly an agrarian country, there are people who are still ready to try for a child as many times as needed in order to have a son. In Kazakhstan it is important to have a son because they usually help to share household duties. It was interesting to find out that in urban areas of Mongolia people put more importance on having a son than Mongolian people in rural and remote areas. A son in a family that lives in a remote area is a household help. The male child in an urban family is an additional income (workforce) for the family (see Figure 33). Regardless of the educational level the female opinion is mostly negative. Respondents with higher education tend to condemn the practice (see Figure 30). However, the majority of respondents have a strong preference towards male children, except for repatriates with secondary education (see Figure 34). Regardless of the number of children and the country of residence the negative opinion prevails. This practice is especially important to the childless repatriates and those with many children. The behaviour of childless women is explainable because most of them want their first child to be a son. Their opinion is dependent on their husbands' dream of a son (see Figure 31). As it was mentioned before, the behaviour of repatriates in Kazakhstan and their values are different from those of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Repatriates are more traditional in many ways. It can be explained by the fact that repatriates live together in their communities and it helps them to preserve cultural traditions. However, it is not possible to definitely say that the behaviour of repatriates is dependent on the influence of the society they have left because ethnic Kazakhs are different in their behaviour. Having migrated to the new society and environment, having faced many problems, repatriates have begun to value family relations as well as the importance of having a son to continue their family line (see Chapter 10.8).

4.4.3 Attitude towards abortion

Abortion is the early and technical termination of a pregnancy which is caused in several ways. Abortion remains one of the biggest problems worldwide. Many researchers conducted surveys to examine attitude toward abortion issues (Focus Canada survey, 2007; Rossier, 2007; Dimoula et al.; Jones, 2008). Among the repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs it is not typical to get rid of the female fetus in the womb, which is practiced in many countries. Respondents consider abortion to be a sin and think that it is acceptable only in case when a fetus has an anomaly and is a threat to mother's health. However, there are women who start seeing abortion as a medical procedure and consider it a solution in case of unwanted child. More than a quarter of repatriates of the older age group think that abortion is not acceptable under any circumstances (see Table 49). However, repatriates from rural areas are more loyal towards abortion than women from urban and remote areas (see Table 50). Regardless of the actual number of children, respondents from both countries consider abortion acceptable only in case when a fetus has an anomaly and there is a threat to mother's health. However, women who think that it is better to have an abortion than an unwanted child can be met in Mongolia. Repatriates with one or two and three or four children from Kazakhstan believe that abortion is not acceptable even if there is a threat to woman's health (see Table 52). Respondents from both countries are religious and their opinions about gender preferences of children are as follows: "All in the hands of God". The faith in God continues to be a significant factor of avoiding an abortion. However, advice of repatriates to unmarried pregnant women is different from ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. This analysis proved the following hypotheses: the influence of the new environment and society is significant; the reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia is different (see Chapter 10.6). Despite the age, Kazakh repatriates are more open-minded and they advice to have an abortion for single pregnant woman. The behaviour of repatriates from Kazakhstan has changed a lot during the last 19 years after migration (see Figure 40). The new environment influences them a lot. They advise to get married, to have an abortion or give birth as a single parent. Ethnic Kazakhs are more traditional and believe that a single pregnant woman has to get married. They cannot accept the fact that a single woman will give birth to a child, bring him/her up alone or have an abortion. However, women with higher education started to think more liberally and suggest that single pregnant women can give birth as a single parent and bring their children up themselves. Repatriates with higher education suggest abortion as a way out. Women with vocational education advice to give birth as a single parent (see Figure 42). Childless repatriates and young mothers advice to have abortion while women who have more children prefer and recommend to give birth as a single parent. The young and childless women are more educated, they know more about abortion than women who are older and have more children (see Figure 43).

5 Social-cultural background

5.1 General overview of the differences between Kazakhs and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia

Firstly, general characteristics based on the differences between the representatives of the Kazakh nationality in Mongolia and the titular Kazakhs in Kazakhstan will be given. "While oralmans (repatriates) do share the same cultural roots as Kazakhs in Kazakhstan, differences in cultural practices and norms do exist. This stems from the fact that oralmans have conserved the traditional Kazakh culture and lifestyle whereas Kazakhs in Kazakhstan have adapted, first to influences brought about during the Soviet period, and more recently to changes occurring through the transition to a market economy. Oralmans, particularly those coming from non-CIS countries, are for the most part more religious than local Kazakhs" (UNDP, 2006).

The representatives of Kazakh nationality who live abroad are viewed by many people as the keepers of cultural heritage of the Kazakh people. Kazakhs in Mongolia represent one of the groups that managed to preserve its religion and language. Mongolian Kazakhs mainly live in western Altai, some families live there for many decades. Due to the nomad genes, Kazakhs are easily adaptable in any country in the world. Living together allowed Kazakh families to preserve their social networks in other countries. The lack of liens with historical motherland also motivated them to preserve the distinctive culture of the Kazakh people. Oralmans are the keepers of the folk traditions and customs. They indeed revive the national culture. "Another important variable affecting the level of cultural adaptation among oralmans is the country of origin. This is clearly observed with regard to clothing and practices at home. Oralman women, particularly in southern regions, wear traditional clothes (see Photo 1), including a long high-necked dress covered with a camisole (see Photo 2) and a kerchief to cover their heads" (op.cit., 2006).

Photo 1 – Traditional clothes, 2009

Note: Mother heroine weared in tradionional clothes, Kazakhstan

Source: Expedition photo

Photo 2 – Traditional clothes,2009

Note: Mother heroine weared in tradionional clothes, Kazakhstan

Source: Expedition photo

The living conditions of Kazakhs abroad are different and depend on the country. A lot depends on education and the local policies of a country of residence. In different countries around the world Kazakhs have different political and economic status, socio-cultural environment. However, Kazakhs who live in the inner regions of Mongolia are more vulnerable to assimilation than those in Bayan-Ulgii aimag. Unfortunately, Kazakhs in the inner regions of Mongolia have almost lost their connection with their culture, language. According to Ainagul Saraikizi, the Kazakh community (Diaspora) lives on the territory of Mongolia for about 100–120 years and regrets about the loss of cultural traditions (Kapkizi, 2009).

One of the main motivations of individuals choosing to immigrate to Kazakhstan is the desire to preserve Kazakh identity, language, culture and traditions. Once in Kazakhstan, they often face difficulties adapting to the public use of both Kazakh and Russian. Given the status of Russian as an officially recognized language and its wide use throughout the country, oralmans may have difficulty in successfully integrating into the labour market. The integration into social and cultural domains is also hampered by insufficient Russian language skills, which still prevails since the country is multiethnic and it is needed for everyday communication.

That is why the main reasons for moving from Mongolia back to Kazakhstan are the low level of life in Mongolia, low living standards, underdeveloped social infrastructure, preservation and development of national culture, language and qualitative education, realization of personal ambitions including professional career. These important factors attracted the Kazakhs of Mongolia to move to Kazakhstan (Seiden, 2003).

There are some differences in everyday life. Most oralmans do not purchase furniture as they use korpe, which are hand-made patchwork quilts, pillows and rugs. Some of them prefer

living in a yurt, which is a nomad's tent (see Photo 3, see Photo 4). At mealtimes, they sit at low tables. Before coming back to Kazakhstan, they used handmade accessories and some pieces of those were brought to Kazakhstan (see Photo 4, see Photo 5).

Photo 3 – Nomadic tent yurts in Mongolia, 2009

Note: Shepherds and cattle-breeders respondents living in Chegirtai bag (remote area) in Mongolia
Source: Expedition photo

Photo 4 – Nomadic tent yurts in Mongolia, 2009

Note: Shepherds and cattle-breeders respondents living in Chegirtai bag (remote area) in Mongolia
Source: Expedition photo

Photo 5 – Traditional home accessories in repatriates family in Kazakhstan, 2009

Note: Decreased number of traditional accessories which were brought from Mongolia
Source: Expedition photo

Photo 6 – Traditional home accessories in ethnic Kazakhs family in Mongolia, 2009

Note: Woman sitting in a yurt, which is a nomad's tent, all the furnitures are handmade
Source: Expedition photo

When changing occupations or locations or when becoming more urbanized, the production of home accessories decreased particularly among Kazakhs from Mongolia. This may be explained by the absence of materials required for such production as well as the fact that some

of these items ceased to be useful. Thus, it is evident that the culture of oralmans (especially of oralmans from Mongolia) has changed and has modernized substantially.

Titular Kazakh population assimilated with other ethnicities living in Kazakhstan and adopted a lot of new things from their cultures. They were on the edge of losing their native tongue. This factor helps to explain reproductive behaviour of repatriates.

The common trait of repatriates and local Kazakhs is a shezhire. Shezhire is a genealogical table of Kazakhs. As a rule, it is a written or oral enumeration of ancestors by the male line. It is believed that each Kazakh must know his/her shezhire down to the seventh generation. Such knowledge protects from closely-related marriages. Getting married was always connected with certain limitations. Thus, according to the ancient adat (customs and traditions) marriage between relatives down to seventh generation was prohibited. That is why the genealogical history was preserved by each family. This rule is acute nowadays. Not knowing your roots and origins is considered to be impolite and ignorant.

That is why many ethnic Kazakhs are worried about not having enough unrelated families. Closely related marriages can take place. Kazakhs try to avoid such marriages because usually the couples from related families will have children with some mental disorders. The research showed that 42 % of the female repatriates at the age of 25–29 years are not married (see Table 10) because they could not find male partners from unrelated families. Repatriates consider 22 years as the ideal age to get married (see Appendices 7 and 8). Another fact that was revealed by the research is that there are no marriages between repatriates and the local Kazakhs. The local Kazakh males do not marry female repatriates.

5.2. Genealogical trees of two families in comparison

The importance of the genealogical tree can hardly be underestimated. It is important to compare the two genealogical trees of the two families that live in different countries but belong to the same kin of Kerey. The genealogical tree can provide such information as the number of children in each generation, occupation and the level of education of the family members. For example, the genealogical tree of the Nurpeisovs family that live in Kazakhstan show the average number of children from the first till the fourth generation is approximately 3.3 (see Appendix V, Scheme 1). The average number of children in the fifth generation is 3.0 (see Appendix V, Scheme 2). Down to the fifth generation, all people of the family were peasants, however all of them could read and write in Arabic. The fifth grandfather Nurpeis was a very religious man and even went on a pilgrimage to Mecca which is called Hajj. Hajj is the holy pilgrimage which is the fifth pillar of Islam alongside the Prayer and Fasting during Ramadhan (see Appendix V, Scheme 2).

There were four children in the family of the sixth grandfather Bekmuhammad. Two of them died very young during the Great Starvation from the history of Kazakhstan (see Appendix V, Scheme 3). It was caused by the collectivization of 1932–1933 when the cattle was being confiscated and “ambitious” food supplies came to an end. The father of Bekmuhammad was a poor peasant. Bekmuhammad’s brother was a teacher who was persecuted during the Great Purge in the Soviet Union (see Appendix V, Scheme 4).

The seventh grandfather Balgabay is the author's grandfather. He is an educated man who worked as a head of the railway station in Zhenis. Nowadays he is retired. During post-war years he worked as a telecommunications worker. Balgabay has three children. His son Bekbolat is a railwayman. Another son Askar is the teacher of physical education. His daughter Raykhan is a geographer. Bekbolat follows the career path of his father and works as a head of a railway station in Zhenis in Karagandy region. The average number of children in this generation is 5.0.

The eighth grandfather in the generation (Bekbolat) is the father of the author. He has three sons and a daughter. The eldest son, Aikyn, is a railwayman. The middle brother Erbolat is a sociologist and the youngest Akhmet is a lawyer. He works for the Police. Askar has four children. Askar's daughter Gulzhan is a historian, Raushan is a railwayman and the twins Sabit and Gabit are schoolboys (see Appendix V, Scheme 3). The genealogical family tree of our family through the male line is represented in Scheme 5. As a rule, it is written or there is an oral enumeration of ancestors by the male line.

To make a comparison, the Shaimardanov families that live in Bayan-Ulgii aimag in Mongolia were chosen (see Appendix V, Scheme 6). The oldest (seventh) grandfather Topay, his six sons and the two following generations are cattle-breeders. The generation of educated family members begins with Mustafa who was a foreman. Mustafa had two sons. The elder Shaimardan was a teacher and is now retired. He had twelve children, however only eight are alive. They all have a higher education qualification. For example, the elder son Marat is a geologist. He works as a head of the department in Energoservice. Askar is a lawyer, Kaisar is a customs officer, Kaidar is an economist who works for a bank. Shaimardan's brother Tuman and Tuman's son Kairat are cattle-breeders. The following conclusion can be made. The fertility rate is higher in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia. For example, the mother of the first Kazakh family had four children; the mother of Askar from the second family gave birth to twelve children. However, the level of education is higher in Kazakhstan.

6 Historical background

6.1 History of Kazakh diaspora in Mongolia

The history of the repatriation of Kazakhs to Mongolia is an acute topic in the history of Kazakhstan even today because the majority of historians consider the collectivization of the 20th century as the beginning of the repatriation. Many of them connect the repatriation with such historical events as the results of Stolipin's agrarian reform in Kazakhstan, the liberation movement in Central Asia in 1916, the civil war in 1918–1920, unhidden genocide against Kazakh people during collectivization. The Second World War also contributed to the development and enlargement of the Kazakh community abroad. As the result of Stolipin's agrarian reform that was launched in the Russian empire, the size of Kazakh population reduced by 8–9 % or 286 thousand people.

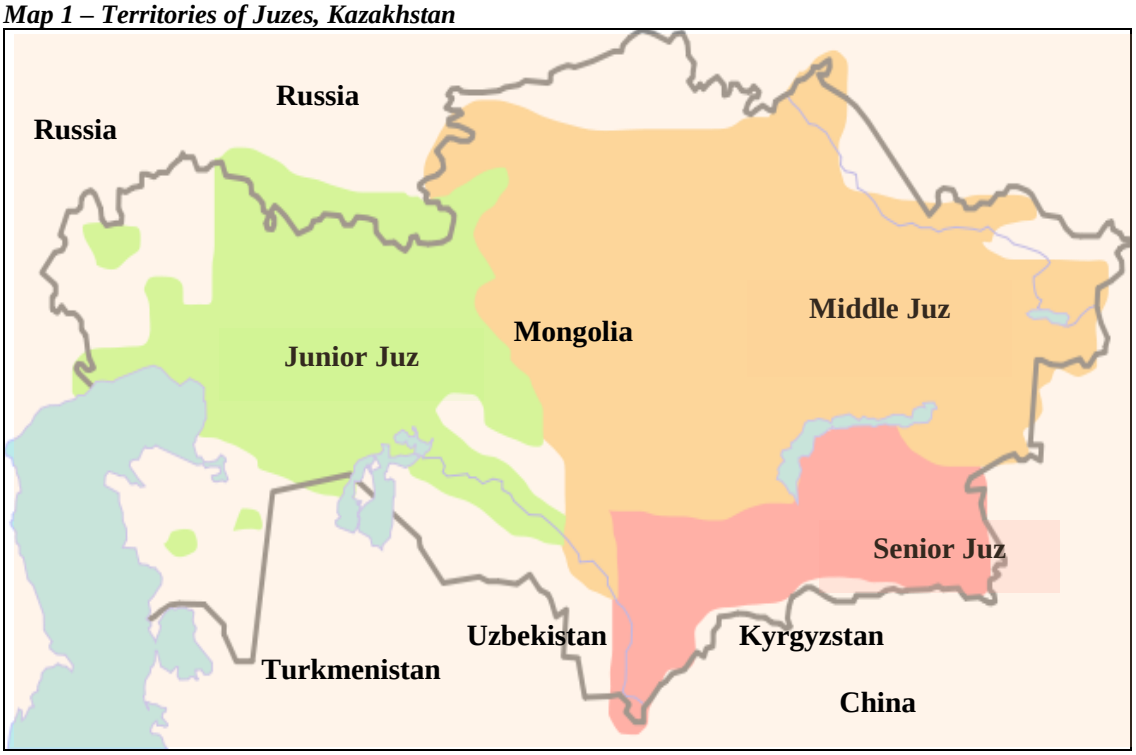
"The majority of Kazakhs roamed to Ili or to the Altai regions of Xinjiang. In 1911 224,900 Kazakhs lived in China. One more period in the formation of the Kazakh community is unlawful collectivization of 1928–1932 in Kazakhstan which was ethnocide against the Kazakh population. The human losses were enormous. Some 1,300,000 people left to Russia, Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Karalpakstan, China, Iran and Afghanistan. 616 thousand people never came back including 200 thousand Kazakhs who went to China, Mongolia, Afghanistan and Iran. 414 thousand people later came back to Kazakhstan" (Mendikulova).

Many people think that ethnic Kazakhs who live in Mongolia fled the country during collectivization, some people claim that they moved to Mongolia in 1867–1868. M. Abiltay, S. Askanbay, Z. Kinyat, I. Kabysh, K. Sartkozha were among the first researchers who studied the history of the repatriation of Kazakhs in Mongolia. The book "Kazakhs in Mongolia" was published in the Kazakh language in Ulan Bator in 2007. It is claimed by the authors of the book that the repatriation of Kazakhs to Mongolia began in 1881 when Russia and China signed the Petersburg agreement about the territorial divisions in Central Asia. As a result of the ratification of the above mentioned agreement, the Kazakh territories and the population were divided between the two states by force (Kurmanbai, Rahmet, 2007). The Kazakhs from the generations (kin) of Kerey and Naymans who belong to Middle Juz live in Mongolia. According to the history of Kazakhstan, Kereys and Naymans always lived in the Northern and Eastern Kazakhstan, on the shores of the Irtysh and Ishim Rivers, in the Western spurs of the

Altai mountains, in Perov, Omsk, and Karkalinsky, Kustanaisky, Semipalatinsky and Zaisansky districts. Eastern Kazakhstan borders with Western Mongolia and its, Bayan-Ulgii aimag (see Map1). Juz (kazakh zhγz – "Union") - historical association of Kazakhs. In total, Kazakhs have formed three juzes: Senior Juz, Middle Juz and Junior Juz. Each of Kazakh juzes has its historically formed space, territory. Senior juz includes the territories of Southern Kazakhstan and Semireche, Middle juz comprises the territories of Central, Eastern and Northern Kazakhstan and Junior juz includes Western Kazakhstan. Tribes of Kazakhs were part of juzes which related to each other and even considered to be descendants of one ancestor. Since juz population lived in a specific geographic area, tribes of one juz were linked with each other by stronger economic ties than with other juzes. In this regard, special intra-community evolved with its own traditions, habits and customs.

It can be concluded that Kazakhs lived on the bordering territories with Western Mongolia and after the ratification of the Petersburg agreement of 1881 they were forced to live in Mongolia.

Map 1 – Territories of Juzes, Kazakhstan



Note: Generations of Kereys and Naimans which belong to the Middle Juz lived mostly in Mongolia

6.1.2 History of ethnic return policy in case of Israel and Germany

We know that after World War II Israel and Germany adopted similar policies of ethnic return migration to homeland. "Germany and Israel are two homelands that have been conducting ethnic return migration policies for over a half of a century. Since the mid–1940s, both countries actively promoted the ingathering of their diaspora through privileged migration and citizenship rights as well as providing special benefits to ensure the social and economic absorption of the immigrants. The end of the USSR brought many more Jews and Germans from the former Soviet territories than the previous waves of migration to their respective homelands. As a result, the two countries faced economic and social challenges in dealing with

this large migration wave" (Kuscu, 2008). "The immigration of 3.9 million ethnic Germans (*Aussiedler*) from Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union to Germany between 1950 and 1998 played a significant role in the country's post World War II immigration and absorption experience" (Joppke, Rosenhek, 2001). "A labour shortage in the middle of the fifties forced the German authorities to actively recruit foreign labour in Southern European countries. To prevent long-term immigration, foreign workers were employed on the basis of a rotation system" (Seifert, 1997). In 1973, facing a recession following the first oil price shock, the German government announced a recruitment stop. A period of restrained migration began, although the foreign population in Germany grew further because of family reunification, a comparatively high fertility rate in the foreign population and the admission of refugees and asylum seekers. After 1987 immigration to Germany again increased remarkably, caused among other reasons by the fall of the Iron Curtain, which allowed an intensified East - West migration. A large part of the population inflow from Eastern Europe and the majority of migrants from the former USSR to Germany consisted of ethnic Germans (Dietz, 1999). Since the political changes in Eastern Europe and the break-up of the Soviet Union the quantity and quality of ethnic German immigration have changed. The number of ethnic German immigrants rose considerably since 1989, leading to an inflow of 2.3 million people since then. The large amount of foreigners in Germany (7.4 million in 1998) must also be attributed to the German citizenship law, existing until 1999, which made it very difficult for foreigners to become German. Because of the changes in the admission regulations, ethnic Germans have been coming nearly exclusively from the successor states of the USSR since 1993. In contrast to the earlier immigration cohorts, which had some command of the German language, most ethnic Germans in the nineties arrived without German language proficiency and an increasing percentage lives in bicultural, mainly Russian/German families. Although this migration is still influenced to a high degree by ethnic considerations and the motivation for family reunification, the economic and social break down in the countries of origin function increasingly as a push factor. As a result of these alterations in the immigrants' quantity and socio-demographic characteristics, the economic and social absorption of the recent Aussiedler group has been accompanied by frictions which were additionally enhanced by an economic slowdown in Germany and serious cuts in the state financed support for ethnic German immigrants (Joppke, Rosenhek, 2001). The Jewish Agency is central in preparation for immigration. This is an organisation that was founded as early as 1929 and that initially worked towards the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine. Since Israel's independence it has primarily pursued the aim of persuading Jews diaspora to immigrate to Israel (Focus Migration, 2008). Israeli immigration policy is based on what is known as the Law of Return, adopted on July 5th, 1950. This makes the concept of a Jewish-Zionist to manifest state allowing, indeed suggesting, that every person in the world of Jewish origin or of the Jewish faith should return to the land of their fathers. It literally states: "Every Jew has the right to come to this country as an oleh" (a person entitled to immigrate). Immigration is described as a "return" or "return to their homeland", literally an ascent (Hebr. aliyah). From the very beginning, however, the virtually unrestricted Jewish immigration did not go undisputed. In consideration of the immense challenges of integration in the early 1950s, the Israeli government attempted at times to control

immigration through regulations: the young, healthy and potentially productive were to be given precedence" (Hacohen, 2003). Official immigration to Israel is based primarily on the Law of Return, which states that anyone with one Jewish grandparent is eligible to immigrate to Israel, regardless of financial status, educational background, age or health. Within three and a half years, by the end of 1951, the population had doubled after a wave of immigration. These immigrants completely changed the demographic makeup of the population. A substantial number of them came from Asian and African countries; they tended to have large families (many had six or more family members), many children and elderly, and most of them had relatively low levels of education. A significant gap often existed between their occupational background and labour market needs in Israel. Immigrants from the FSU differ from the native born Israeli population in family size, age and marital status. Overall, the immigration from the FSU is characterized by rich human resources (Dayan, 2004). We see that the aim of German ethnic return migration policy was labour shortage, professional migration and Israel policy was the establishment of a Jewish state in Palestine. Ethnic return policy of the Republic of Kazakhstan is solving demographic problems of the country.

6.1.3 Repatriation to Kazakhstan

One of the priorities of the migration policy after independence of the Republic of Kazakhstan was repatriation of Kazakhs to their historical homeland. After the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991, nearly half of the Kazakh population in Mongolia migrated to newly independent Kazakhstan. Western Mongolia was particularly devastated by the post-socialist transition, which simultaneously brought a decline in supply routes and employment opportunities. With reduced support from the state, there were few alternatives to herd, and the herding lifestyle became increasingly difficult. Hoping to abandon their herding lifestyle many migrants left for Kazakhstan, the place they imagined to be more modern and sophisticated than Mongolia (Diener, 2007). The decision to move away from Mongolia to Kazakhstan reflects both the economic situation in Mongolia during the transition period (push factors) as well as the lure of returning to what many (but not all) Mongolian Kazakhs perceive as their ancestral "homeland" (pull factor) (Diener, 2009).

Return of repatriates from CIS and foreign countries could help to solve the demographic problem of the country. "According to the Committee on Migration of the RK in the period of 1991 to 2010, Kazakhstan welcomed at about 789,000 Oralmans, (approximately 201,400 families) and 110,000 of them from Mongolia." (Orazalyuly, 2010). Oralmans are found in all regions of Kazakhstan. The region with the highest number of oralmans is South Kazakhstan region (see Map 2). In June 1992 the law "On migration" was adopted. According to the Article I, ethnic Kazakhs have the right to return home. The homecoming of oralmans is regulated according to the quota set by the president of Kazakhstan. The quota for oralmans is set for each calendar year with the consideration of the changes in the population size, economic and financial performance. In 1993 the first annual quota for 10,000 families was set (see Appendix 2). "This number gradually dropped reaching its lowest level in the period 1999–2001 with only 500 families. The visible drop in the number of quota in the period 1999–2001 can be explained with the economic crisis of the country it was experiencing at the time. The allocated quota increased in subsequent years reaching its highest level in 2005–2007 with 15,000 families

given quota" (Orazalyuly, 2010). As it can be seen from Appendix 1, the quotas have been set since 1993, however, the repatriates started to come to Zhairem to work in 1991, since 2005 they were coming according to the quota and by their own initiative. The peak of the repatriation from Mongolia to Karaganda region was observed in 1992 (see Appendix 3). 1,099 repatriates-Mongolian oralmans lived in Zhairem as of May 1st, 2009 (see Appendix 4).

Repatriation from Mongolia to Kazakhstan (from 1991 and 2008) was divided into three periods by Barcus and Werner. They identify three periods of migration with each period characterized by changing economies and national policies in Mongolia and Kazakhstan as well as changes in communication technologies and extensiveness of social networks among prospective migrants (Barcus, Werner, 2008). In each period, Mongolian Kazakh migration flows are responding to changing economic conditions in both sending and receiving countries and changing incentives offered by the Kazakhstani government.

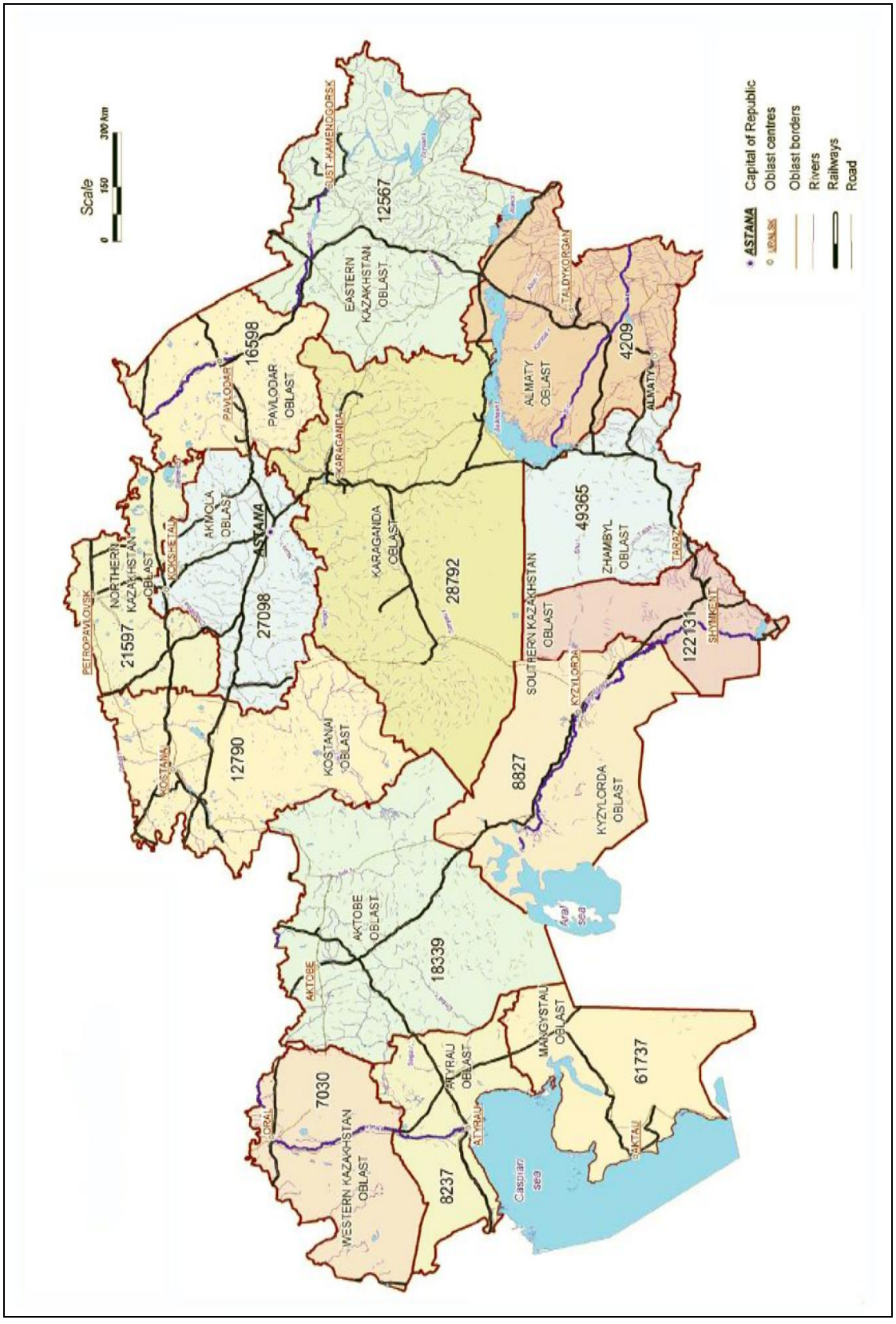
During the first phase (1991–1996), Mongolian Kazakhs were struggling with deteriorating economic conditions in Mongolia at the same time that the Kazakhstani government was providing economic and cultural incentives to migrate. From 1991 to 1997, incentives provided by the Kazakhstan government included five-year work contracts, transportation to Kazakhstan, housing and other forms of material support (social pensions, child allowances, free healthcare, and free education for children). Incentives to migrate declined during the second phase of migration (1997–2002). By 1997, economic conditions in Mongolia were slowly starting to improve. And, in 1997, the Kazakhstani government introduced a new legal framework for Kazakh migrants which simultaneously reduced the amount of material assistance and streamlined the process for gaining Kazakhstani citizenship (UNDP, 2006). During the third phase of migration (2003–2008), increased development of cross-border trade and tourism were providing lucrative alternatives for some Mongolian Kazakhs. Further, due to new forms of technology and continuing ties with the transnational community of Mongolian Kazakhs in Kazakhstan, potential migrants have more knowledge of the prospective opportunities in Kazakhstan, and thus are making more strategic and calculated decisions about whether or not to migrate (Barcus, Werner, 2009).

The repatriates came to Zhairem due to the decree adopted on November 18, 1991, one month before Kazakhstan became independent. The decree "On the procedure and conditions of the repatriation of ethnic people to the Kazakh Soviet Socialist Republic in order to work in the agricultural sector" did not only regulate the immigration of the Kazakhs into the country, but was also supposed to influence the development of the Kazakh rural areas and agricultural infrastructure. As a result, 61 609 ethic Kazakhs came to Kazakhstan in 1991–1992 (UNDP, 2006). Since 1994, when the country set the quota, the dramatic decline in the number of coming repatriates was observed. Some of the reasons to explain such a phenomenon could be economic difficulties and the process of smooth realization of the decree's principles. According to the research, ethnic Kazakhs prefer to move with the quota. The program "Nurly Kosh" of 2010 will attract 50 more repatriate families from Mongolia to Zhairem. This program aims at creating the system in the migration processes in the country. 15 thousand oralman families were accepted annually in Kazakhstan according to the quota. One-time allowance was approximately 800 thousand Kazakh tenge. According to the program of 2010, 20 thousand

families will be accepted annually and will be accommodated close to the major industries. The participation in the program "Nurly Kosh" is voluntary and ethnic Kazakhs are offered the opportunity to earn for their own accommodation.

According to the vice-minister of Kazakhstan, Umirzak Shukeev, they will be able to get a loan on preferential terms. The Minister of Labour, Berdybek Saparbayev, assured that the loans granted would be repaid through akimats. "Zhilstroisberbank" is ready to issue loans for 15 years at 4 % annual interest rate. The land given to the oralmans by the state will be accepted as the 5 % initial deposit (Mukanov, 2008).

Map 2 – Distribution of Oralmans by oblast



Source: UNDP, 2006

7 General description of the survey

7.1 Characteristic of the sample survey

The field part of the research was conducted in July 2009 in a format of a sample survey. The supervisors of the survey who carried out this research were Tomáš Kučera, (Charles University, Prague), Milan Tuček, (Institute of Sociology, Czech Academy of Sciences) and Kuanysh Nurpeisova, a doctoral student of Demography (Charles University, Prague, Bolashak scholarship holder).

The research goal is to study reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in the place of origin of those repatriates and to analyze the factors that influence their behaviour. Statistical information was collected with the help of questionnaires and interviews. The total number of respondents was 720 people (see Table 1). However, during the analysis we excluded 10 respondents from the survey data because of the missing values. The software used for the analysis was SPSS 12.OR.

Table 1 – Characteristics of the sample survey

Number of respondents	total: 720; country(region): 360; type of residence:120; each studied age group:90 respondents
Places	1. Kazakhstan, Karaganda region, Karazhal-Zhairem district 2. Mongolia, Bayan-Ulgii aimag
Types of residence	urban areas; rural areas; hamlet/remote areas
Studied age groups	17-19 years; 25-29 years; 35-40 years; 55-60 years
Period of repatriation	1991 – 1993
Survey period	1. – 30.07.2009

On the premise that changes in reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs depend on social environment, the country of residence and the type of settlement should influence reproductive behaviour and intentions of female repatriates.

It was important to concentrate on reproductive behaviour of the female repatriates because they play an important role in the replacement process in both countries by having usually

above-average number of children. The group of repatriates that moved to Kazakhstan from 1991 till 1993 (working agreements without quota) and has been living in the given region for almost 18 years was considered. This group of repatriates is viewed as the most important for the comparison and will help to find the changes in the behaviour of repatriates. Starting from 2006, repatriates on quota started to come to this region. However, they will not be included into the sample. It is assumed that it is difficult to observe any influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from the local behaviour in the short-term period. That is why women at the age of 17–60 from the first wave of repatriates are the object of the research. There are certain deviations in the data that need to be considered.

7.1.1 The age groups covered

Age group of respondents is a controling variable. Four age groups that represent different generations are studied during the research:

1) 17 to 19 years old;
2) 25 to 29 years old;
3) 35 to 40 years old;
4) 55 to 60 years old.

The age intervals are uneven and were determined with respect to required group qualitative characteristics of their members (see Table 2).

Table 2 – Focused age groups of respondents

Focused age groups	Feature of the sample survey
17–19	Born and raised in Kazakhstan or born in Mongolia but moved to Kazakhstan during the first year of life, not married yet, having attended the same school as the local Kazakhs; in principle the second generation of migrants;
25–29	On arrival they were 6–13 years old, i.e. born in Mongolia, but grew up and eventually got married in Kazakhstan;
35–40	On arrival they were 16–24 years old, i.e. people who could have gotten married and have children already in Mongolia or undergo these events early after their arrival in Kazakhstan;
55–60	On arrival they were 36–44 years old, i.e. already have had children and have almost been at the end of their reproductive age upon arrival to Kazakhstan.

Note: Author's explanation

The first group represents respondents who were born and raised in Kazakhstan or born in Mongolia and are not married yet. They attended the same school as the local Kazakhs and had to adopt their behaviour. It means that they do not experience at all or consciously life in the origin and they were not directly influenced by conditions prevailing there. Their values were predominantly formed by situation at the place of destination. The second group consists of respondents who were born in Mongolia but grew up in Kazakhstan and eventually got married

in Kazakhstan. On arrival they were 13 years old at maximum. This means they adapt to the new environment preferring self-realization and use birth control methods to postpone or reduce their reproduction. The third group is comprised of respondents who could have started getting married and have children already in Mongolia or undergo these events after their arrival in Kazakhstan. It means reproductive behaviour of the third group of respondents could have changed under the impact of difficulties after migration, however we suppose they can keep their old environment behaviour because on arrival they were 24 years old at maximum. Respondents who already have children and almost been at the end of their reproductive age when arrived are included into the fourth group. This age group of respondents have strong old environment behaviour and they pass it to the other younger age group of respondents.

Respondents of each group are unique in their own way. To compare the differences in reproductive behaviour among repatriates and those ethnic Kazakhs remaining in Mongolia it is necessary to consider repatriates of the first and second groups who already grew up in Kazakhstan. The observations of the third group can help to answer the questions about the repatriates behaviour before and after migration, and about the behaviour of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Respondents of the fourth group would show how many children they had when coming to Kazakhstan, what is the influence of the oldest generation of respondents on other generations.

7.1.2 Actual number of children

The actual number of children is a dependent variable. In the questionnaire the actual number of children starts from 1 child up to 10 children. In Table 3 we present the distribution of the actual number of children by country. Sample survey data shows the distribution of the actual number of children as follows: among the respondents from both countries in total 36 % of childless women, 8 % of women with one child, 10 % of women with two and five children, 14 % of women with three children, 12 % of women with four children, 4 % of women have six and seven children, 3 % of them have eight children, 0.4 % of women with nine and 0.8 % of women with ten children (see Table 3). However, in order to make suitable analysis, 11 parameters with the actual number of children were combined into four groups: childless women, the small size families group included women with one and two children, medium size families with three or four children, and finally the higher number of children with five and more children. The distribution of the actual number of children is as follows: 36 % are childless women, 18 % of women with one or two children, 25 % of women with three or four children and 21 % of women have five and more children (see Table 4).

Table 3 – Distribution of the actual number of children, sample, 2009 (%)

Number of children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no children	254	35.8	254	35.8
1 child	58	8.2	312	43.9
2 children	68	9.6	380	53.5
3 children	96	13.5	476	67.0
4 children	82	11.6	558	78.6
5 children	69	9.7	627	88.3
6 children	28	3.9	655	92.3
7 children	27	3.8	682	96.1
8 children	19	2.7	701	98.7
9 children	3	0.4	704	99.2
10 and more children	6	35.8	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

Table 4 – Distribution of the actual number of children, sample, 2009 (%)

Number of children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no children	254	35.8	254	35.8
1–2 children	126	17.8	380	53.5
3–4 children	178	25.1	558	78.6
5 and more children	152	21.4	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

7.1.3 Educational structure

Education has long been recognized as a crucial factor influencing women's childbearing patterns that has an impact on marriage age and postponement of birth to later ages. An extensive demographic literature is devoted to examining the role of female education in promoting sustained fertility decline. Many scientists observed the strong relationship between education and fertility. Women with no or secondary education have large families with six–seven children, whereas better educated women have families with two or three children. Higher levels of schooling appear to be associated with fewer children per woman. Fertility declines accompanied by increases in educational levels have occurred in developed countries. In that case it is interesting to see how it looks among repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Since the repatriation to Kazakhstan they have had more chances to receive a higher free education in Kazakhstan since the government allocates special grants for free training. Higher education in Mongolian universities is paid. Under current legislation the

state pays for education of a student if both of his parents are retired or no one is a provider in the family (i.e. the child brought up in single-parent family). There is a consensus that education is one of the most important means to improve the quality of life of the society and that improved education is an integral component of social and economic development, as it enables individuals and societies to make a better use of their resources and to realize their potential. At the individual level, the educational level is usually associated with socio-economic status. Furthermore, education is a powerful instrument for acquiring new values and, consequently, for modifying our relationships with other human beings and the environment. Hence, it is an important instrument of social change. At the societal level, the educational rank of a group or a community is associated with particular levels of socio-economic development (Serbessa, 2008).

The education system in Kazakhstan based on the principle of continuity and educational training programs includes the following levels of education: (0) pre-school education and training; (1) secondary education up to 4^{th} grade; (2) incomplete secondary education up to 9^{th} grade; (3) complete secondary education up to 11^{th} grade; (4) post-secondary education; (5) higher education; (6) post-graduate education (see Table 5). After 9^{th} year of the secondary education program the student has a choice to continue up to 11^{th} grade or to transfer to specialized schools (college). College is an institution that implements general education curricula of general secondary education and vocational training programs for technical and vocational, post-secondary education. However, graduates from secondary schools in Kazakhstan have the opportunity to continue their education at the universities (higher education), as well as in vocational or technical post-secondary schools. Under the old Soviet system, they were referred to as PTUs (Proffessionalnoe Technicheskoe Uchilishe) or Technicums. They provide students with a working skill qualification and give them diploma of vocational education which gives the right to work or to continue education at universities for specialty which they have learned in colleges.

An important development in higher and postgraduate education of Kazakhstan is its approach to world standards by adopting higher and post-graduate education to the Bologna Process. Kazakhstani system of higher and postgraduate education makes the transition to the three stage training model as Bachelor – Master – PhD. Master's degree as in many countries is displayed on the Graduate level of education according to the new "Law of education" (2007). The tertiary and post-graduate professional education has three stages: Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree and PhD Degree. Since 2005, Kazakhstan has launched a new classifier of undergraduate and graduate programs, harmonized with the ISCED and in compliance with the provisions of the Bologna Declaration containing consolidated speciality (Project Material, 2008). **The International Standard Classification of Education** (ISCED) was designed by UNESCO in the early 1970's to serve "as an instrument suitable for assembling, compiling and presenting statistics of education both within individual countries and internationally". The present classification, now known as ISCED 1997, was approved by the UNESCO General Conference at its 29th session in November 1997 (ISCED, 1997). In Table 5 we represent ISCED levels of education (see Table 5).

Mongolia's system of education closely followed the Soviet and Eastern European model until the demise of the USSR. Since the early 1990s, it has been undergoing changes as the country shifts from centralized economy and one-party state system to market-oriented economy with a more pluralistic government. Under the current reforms, school curricula have been revised, and the supply of textbooks has increased at the secondary and vocational levels. The number of students at all levels of education has also increased. The Ministry of Science, Technology, Education and Culture (MOSTEC) formulates educational policy and sets the standards for each level of formal education. Promotion to each educational level is through a system of exams. At the end of secondary, lower secondary and upper secondary education students are required to take state examinations. The education system of Mongolia includes the several steps: (1) pre-school education and training; (2) secondary education (4^{th} grade), at the end issued a paper on education "*Gerchilgee";* (3) lower secondary education; (4) upper secondary education; (5) higher education; (6) post-graduate education.

Secondary education is compulsory and lasts four years. Schools for the secondary, lower secondary and upper secondary levels generally do not exist separately. There are only 79 schools offering just secondary education in Mongolia (mostly in remote rural areas), and 232 eight-year schools offering both secondary and lower secondary education. More than 20 % of secondary school children drop out of school due to high travel or meal costs, lack of interest in studying, poor living standards and health problems (Sedgwick, 2003). In remote rural areas where there are no schools, children are often sent to aimak centers to boarding schools (internat), and they return home only for a two-weeks winter holiday and for three-months vacation in the summer (Studymir, 2008).

Secondary education is divided into two cycles: lower secondary and upper secondary education. Lower secondary education is the final stage of compulsory schooling and lasts four years (ages 12–16), followed by the two years of upper secondary education (ages 17–18). Upon completion of this stage of education students receive Leaving Certificate: *Gerchilgee* (School Leaving Certificate). Starting from September 1^{st} of 2008 Mongolia will have 12 years of schooling (before it had 11 years of education) (Biliktyeva, Polyanskaya). Graduates from grades eight through 10 are eligible to enter technical and vocational training schools.

Upper secondary school (not compulsory) is divided into general education and vocational/technical education. Upon completion of this stage of education students receive a certificate of education "*Buren Dundee Bolovsrolyn Unemleh".* There are a number of technical and vocational schools that enroll lower and upper secondary school graduates. These schools provide secondary vocational education programs to train skilled workers and technicians. In recent years, many of the schools, which are subsidized by the government, have been closed down due to the current economic crisis in Mongolia. In 1990, there were 46 such schools, but by 1996 their number dropped to only 33. The total number of students enrolled in technical and vocational schools is 11,308 (Sedgwick, 2003).

Higher education in Mongolia is provided by universities, colleges and institutes. Colleges offer mainly undergraduate programs, while universities focus more on research and graduate studies. Public institutions of higher education are non-profit organizations, while private institutions may be either non-profit or for-profit. Higher education was fully subsidized by the

state until 1993 when fees for students were introduced for the first time. However, the government continues to provide financial assistance in the form of grants and loans to students from low income families and to those who demonstrate outstanding achievement or if both of the parents are retired, or no one is a provider in the family (i.e. the child is brought up in a single-parent family). Admission to both university and non-university programs require the *Gerchilgee* diploma, awarded at the end of secondary school. Students must also take a competitive entrance examination administered by all institutions of higher education. The examination is held once a year, usually at the end of June and early July. The dropout rate for university students continues to rise as increasing number of young men return home to rural areas to help their families with herding. According to the Mongolian Statistical Office the number of female students currently significantly exceeds the number of males attending universities. Women currently account for more than 63 % of university students with 65 % of them earning master's degrees. In addition, recent Human Development Report revealed that 80 % of medical doctors, 70 % of lawyers, and 73 % of teachers in Mongolia are women.

Post-graduate education. Formerly, higher-education institutions used to mainly offer undergraduate programs leading to the award of a higher-education diploma with the title of "specialist." In 1992, a more Western model, consisting of the B.A., M.A., and Ph.D., was introduced. The Doctor of Science degree (similar to the German *habilitation* doctorate) is awarded as an advanced degree, requiring two and a half to three years of study beyond the Ph.D. Some institutions, such as the Mongolian Technical University award a "diploma" (associate degree) that is equivalent to the first two years of a bachelor's degree.

Stage I: The first stage of higher education requires three to five years of full-time study leading to a Bachelor's degree. Professional degrees in dentistry, pharmacy and veterinary medicine require five years, and degrees in medicine are conferred after six years.

Stage II: The Master's degree is awarded after one and a half to two years of study beyond the bachelor's degree.

Stage III: The Doctor of Philosophy requires several years of advanced study beyond the master's degree in addition to dissertation and public defense (Sedgwick, 2003).

Table 5 – Educational levels of Kazakhstan and ISED classification

Kazakhstan	ISCED
Pre-school education and training;	Level 0 pre-secondary education;
Secondary education (up to 4th grade);	Level-1, secondary education or first stage of basic education (up to 6th grade);
Incomplete secondary education (up to 9th grade);	Level-2 lower secondary or second stage of basic education;
Secondary education (general secondary education up to 11 th grade); Upper secondary education (technical and vocational education);	Level-3 upper secondary education;
Post-secondary education;	Level-4 post-secondary education;
Higher education (universities);	Level-5 first stage of tertiary education; not leading directly to an advanced research qualification;
Post-graduate education; Aspirantura, MA, PHD, Ordinatura, Internatura, Ad'unktura	Level-6 second stage of tertiary education; leading to an advanced research qualification

Source: ISCED classification (1997) and The Law of the Republic of Kazakhstan on Education (2007)

In order to make suitable analysis, three groups of educational levels of respondents are taken into consideration. First group includes women with secondary education. Second group consists of women with vocational education and third group includes women with higher education. However, in the questionnaires educational levels of the respondents are divided into nine categories of educational levels as: no answer; no education; secondary, 4 grades; incomplete secondary, up to 9th grade; secondary (10–11th grades); vocational education (specialized professional training schools, colleges, technical secondary schools); incomplete higher education; higher education; academic degree; another answer. The distribution of educational levels of respondents from survey data is represented in Table 6. However, the proportions of educational level in this table are not suitable for analysis (see Table 6).

Table 6 – Educational level of respondents, sample, 2009 (%)

Educational level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no answer	40	5.6	40	5.6
another answer	0	0.0	0	0.0
no education	10	1.4	50	7.0
secondary, 4 grades	34	4.8	84	11.8
incomplete secondary, up to 9th grade	68	9.6	152	21.4
secondary, 10–11th grades	181	25.5	333	46.9
vocational education*	155	21.8	488	68.7
incomplete higher education	72	10.1	560	78.9
higher education	147	20.7	707	99.6
academic degree	3	0.4	710	100.0

Notes: The classification of education is given according to the survey questionnaire
* vocational education includes specialized professional training schools, colleges, technical secondary schools
Source: Own survey data

For the suitable analysis all nine categories of educational levels of respondents were combined and divided into the main three groups of educational levels such as women with secondary education which includes (secondary, 4 grades, incomplete secondary, up to 9th grade and secondary 10-11th grades), women with vocational education and women with higher education (incomplete higher, higher and academic degree). The categories with no education were excluded from the analysis. Women with secondary education have certificates of secondary education (attestat o srednem obrozovany). Women with vocational education have diplomas of specialized secondary degree. Women who have not completed their education or have not passed final certification are issued standard certificate (The Law, 2007). Women with higher education have diplomas of higher education. The purpose for such elimination was to get a precise result, because there are no uneducated women among the repatriates, although a certain percentage of those were found in Mongolia. The second category-"other" was added in case if respondents would like to point out their educational level which could not be found in the questionnaire. In total majority of the interviewed respondents (44 %) from both countries have secondary education (we used Kazakhstani classification), 26 % of them are vocationally educated and 29 % of them are with higher education. According to the survey data the proportion of respondents with secondary education prevails in Mongolia in comparison with Kazakhstan, 53 % of them at the group of 25–29 and 55–60 years, 48 % of them at the age group of 35–40 years and 43 % of them at the younger age. The number of women with vocational education is higher among the younger (34 %) and older ages (31 %) in Kazakhstan in comparison with Mongolia. As for women with higher education the number of them is higher at the age groups of 25–29 (27 %) and 55–60 (35 %) years old in Kazakhstan than in

Mongolia. In Mongolia their proportion prevails in the group of 17–19 years olds comprising 37 % and at the age group of 35–40 years constituting 34 % (see Table 7).

Table 7– Educational level of respondents according to the age group, sample, 2009 (%)

Age	Country	Educational level			Total
		Secondary	Vocational	Higher	
17–19	KZ	37	34	29	100
	MG	43	20	37	100
25–29	KZ	48	25	27	100
	MG	53	24	23	100
35–40	KZ	47	28	24	100
	MG	48	19	34	100
55–60	KZ	35	30	35	100
	MG	53	21	26	100

Source: Own survey data

7.1.4. Marital status

Three groups of women will be considered in the analysis: married women and married women without partners, single or never married women which do not have children out of marriage. In the questionnaire marital status of women was divided into seven groups: never married women, married for the first time, married for the second time, married but lived without husbands, cohabitation, divorced, widowed. In Table 8 we represent the marital distribution of respondents according to survey data. According to the sample survey data 30 % of them are single never married respondents, 61% are 1st time married women, 2 % are 2nd time married women, 4 % are widowed women. The proportion of women which are married but lived without husbands and women living in cohabitation are very rare (see Table 8).

In order to specify the results, all categories were unified into three groups: single, married women and women without partners because the distribution of these seven groups was not suitable for the analysis (see Table 8). In Table 9 we can see combined groups of marital distribution of respondents. The first group of single women included never married women (30 %); second group of married women included two categories of women married for the first and second time (62 %), third group of women without partners included three categories of women which are married but lived without husbands, divorced and widowed women (8 %).

Table 8 – Marital status of respondents, sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
never married	215	30.3	215	30.3
married for the 1st time	428	60.3	643	90.6
married for the 2nd time	11	1.6	654	92.1
married but lived without a husband	4	0.6	658	92.7
cohabitation	2	0.3	660	93.0
divorced	4	0.6	664	93.5
widowed	29	4.1	693	97.6
no answer	17	2.4	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

Table 9 –Marital status of respondents, sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
single women	215	30.3	217	30.3
married women	439	61. 8	614	92.1
women without partners	56	7.9	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

According to the survey data the proportion of single never married women is higher among the respondents at the age group of 17–19 years (96 % and 88 %) and 25–29 years old (40 % and 30 %). The proportion of 1st time married women is 56 % and 67 % at the age group of 25–29 years, 82 % and 93 % at the age group of 35–40 years, and 81–84 % among the older age groups of respondents. 10 % and 15 % of women at older ages and 7 % of repatriates at the age group of 35–40 years are widowed, 3 % of ethnic Kazakhs at the age group of 35–40 years are divorced. The proportion of women living in cohabitaiton and women who live without husbands are very rare (see Table 10). The average number of children among married women is higher in Kazakhstan with 3.9 children than in Mongolia with 3.2 children.

Table 10 – Marital status of respondents according to the age group, sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Age group							
	17–19		25–29		35–40		55–60	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
No answer	3	12	3	3	0	0	0	0
Never married	96	88	41	30	1	1	4	1
Married 1st time	0	0	54	67	82	93	81	84
Married 2nd time	0	0	1	0	8	0	0	3
Married but lived without a husband	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	1
Cohabitation	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Divorced	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1
Widowed	0	0	0	0	7	1	15	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Own survey data

7.1.5. Place of residence

To analyze reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs according to the place of residence three main types of administrative units will be considered:

1) Urban areas (in Kazakhstan-Town, in Mongolia-Aimag);
2) Rural areas (in Kazakhstan-Village, in Mongolia-Somon);
3) Remote areas (in Kazakhstan-Aul, in Mongolia-Bag).

It is difficult to interpret the results by the place of residence of respondents because the aimag and the city are considered together despite the big differences among them. It depends on the population size of the settlement. There are 9,000 people in Zhairem posiolok and 30,000 people in Bayan-Uglii town. This proves that Zhairem is an almost abandoned town while Bayan-Ulgii is the centre of Aimag. It will be better to compare it with Karaganda which is the centre of Karaganda region.

Generally, the comparison is often based on TFR and ASFR. In case of this research the following characteristics will be considered: ideal, planned and desired number of children, the actual number of children of respondents' mothers. Kazakh statistical system does not calculate TFR and ASFR separately for repatriates. However, for ethnic Kazakhs in Bayan-Ulgii aimag such data can be found in the annual statistical journals because 90 % of the population in this aimag are Kazakhs. The nativity will be described according to the age groups of the cohorts (generations) and the duration of residency of the repatriates in Kazakhstan. As repatriation represents a considerable gap in nativity, the method of L.Toulemon will be used for the comparison. This method uses TFR before and after migration (Toulemon, 2006). Ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia and repatriates in Kazakhstan were considered. The assumed difference on reproductive behaviour of repatriates in Kazakhstan and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia was supposed to be less. The results of this method will be presented in the conclusion of this minor thesis.

7.1.6 Variables related to reproductive intentions of respondents

According to survey data the ideal number of children starts from 2 to 13 children (see Appendix 5), the desired number of children from 2 to 11 children (see Appendix 6) and the planned number of children from 2 to 7 children (see Table 12). Here, we also found respondents which did not answer these questions and we recorded it as 0 children. However, we did not find respondents who consider 1 child to be ideal (planned, desired). The proportion of women considering four children as ideal (34 %), desired (29 %) and planned (30 %) number prevails among the respondents and very few women want to have two and three children (see Appendixes 5 and 6). For the suitable analysis in the description parts of the thesis we combined the number of children from 3 to 7 and more children (see Chapter 8), the percentage of 2 and 3 children was combined together as three children, four, five, six children separately, and others were included in the group of 7 and more children. However, in order to make modeling we started with the number of children from 2 to 7 and more children (see Table 11, 12, 13).

Table 11 – Distribution of the ideal number of children, sample, 2009 (%)

Ideal number of children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no answer	97	13.6	97	13.6
1 children	0	0.0	0	0.0
2 children	27	3.8	124	17.5
3 children	49	6.9	173	24.4
4 children	244	34.4	417	58.7
5 children	117	16.5	534	75.2
6 children	105	14.8	639	90.0
7 and more children	71	10.0	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

Table 12 – Distribution of the planned number of children, sample, 2009 (%)

Planned number of children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no answer	140	19.7	140	19.7
1 children	0	0.0	0	0.0
2 children	31	4.4	171	24.1
3 children	81	11.4	252	35.5
4 children	212	29.9	464	65.4
5 children	104	14.7	568	80.0
6 children	72	10.1	640	90.1
7 and more children	70	9.9	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

Table 13 – Distribution of the desired number of children, sample, 2009 (%)

Desired number of children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no answer	136	19.2	136	19.2
1 children	0	0.0	0	0.0
2 children	22	3.1	158	22.3
3 children	40	5.6	198	27.9
4 children	208	29.3	406	57.2
5 children	93	13.1	499	70.3
6 children	95	13.4	594	83.7
7 and more children	116	16.3	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

7.2. Format of the survey

Statistical information was collected with the help of questionnaires and interviews. A certain number of respondents were asked specific questions concerning reproductive behaviour. Answering open and closed questions was volunteer and anonymous. The questionnaire was composed in Russian language so that the tutors could make suggestions about its content. Later after approval, the questionnaire was translated into Kazakh language (native language of respondents). The questionnaire is a list of questions, approximately 19 pages long (see Appendixes from 11 to 14):

- Page 1: the title page with the topic of the doctoral thesis, contact details of the study center and Bolashak Centre, the number of the questionnaires, the number of respondents, the respondent's place of residence and his/her title;
- Pages 2–19: date and signature;

  The questions are divided into 8 blocks:

  1. Information about the respondent;
  2. Social life standards;
  3. Attitude towards Kazakh state policies on the population size;
  4. Attitude towards family and marriage;
  5. Reproductive behaviour and the intentions of the respondent;
  6. Information about the respondent's children;
  7. Social networking activities of the respondent;
  8. How traditional the views of the respondent are;

Each block is dedicated to a certain topic of the research which helps to reach the main goal of the research to study reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia.

7.3 Data source and methods

7.3.1 Data source

In order to study female reproductive behaviour, it is necessary to analyze the data on female fertility, reproductive intentions, life standards, financial status of a family which influence reproductive behaviour of women. However, standard statistical data describing reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia does not practically exist. Such data can be obtained only through the sample survey. The Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan does not have the data on repatriates as they are not separated into a special group. On this matter, field research was conducted in July, 2009 in Kazakhstan and Mongolia in order to receive the data on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia.

7.3.2 Analytical methods

The main methods of descriptive statistics and demographic analysis were used for conducting the research. The main procedures during the research are comparative analysis of correlation, comparison of means, mean deviation, chi-square test to verify the hypotheses, association between the rates in the columns and the rows of the tables. Statistical testing is used for analyzing the quantitative data of a sample to verify statistical hypothesis. TFR was taken from the periodical publications of the Kazakh and Mongolian Statistical Agencies that is why the formulae are not presented in the minor thesis.

The Chi-Square Test procedure tabulates a variable into categories and computes a chi-square statistic. This goodness of fit test compares the observed and expected frequencies to test wether all categories contain the same proportion of values or test wether each category

contains a user specified proportion of values. The Chi-Square Test procedure is typically used to test observed frequencies against a single expected value that is the same for all rows. Chi-Square Test allows you (PASW Statistics 18, Help menu): (i) to include all categories of the test variable or limit the test to a specific range.; (ii) to use standard or customized expected values; (iii) to obtain descriptive statistics and/or quartiles on the test variable. In general, statistical significance of investigated differences (between/among structures or aggregated characteristics) is examined on two standard levels: 5% level ($p \leq 0.05$) or 1% level ($p \leq 0.01$). Additionally, we are tracing extremely high statistical significance on the level 0.1 % ($p \leq 0.001$). All other values ($p > 0.05$) are not recognized as indicators of significant differences. These values were calculated using procedures of SPSS program. Two variables are mutually independent, if the observed frequency (f0) in the cells coincides with the expected frequencies (fe). Usually, Pearson criteria is used to calculate the chi-square formula:

$$x^2 = \sum \frac{(f_0 - f_e)^2}{f_0}.$$

ANOVA is analysis of variance. Using hypothesis testing features you can test for the differences between group means using one-way ANOVA. Two-way ANOVA, also called two-factor ANOVA, determines how a response is affected by two factors. ANOVA displays a standard analysis of variance table and calculates eta and eta squared. The P-value is computed from the F ratio which is computed from the ANOVA table. The F-ratio can be thought of as a measure of how different the means are relative to the variability within each sample. The larger this value, the greater the likelihood that the differences between the means are due to something other than chance alone, namely real effects. F-ratio is computed by dividing the MSB by MSW. This is illustrated below:

$$F_{obs} = MSB/MSW$$

where MSB is variance of mean between groups;

MSW is variance of mean within groups.

Since this P-value is usually set at 0.05, any value less than this will result in significant effects, while any value greater than this value will result in insignificant effects.

Correlation expresses association between two variables. In order to describe the degree of relationship between the two variables we used a correlation analysis methods as they are incorporate into the basic module of SPSS software. We apply the correlation to determine the extent to which changes in the value of an attribute (such as actual number of children) are associated with changes in another attribute (such as age group, educational level, place of residence, marital status of women). The results of association between all our variables were presented in chapter 8 (Reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia), in chapter 9 (Family's living standards and its influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia) and finally in chapter 10 (Cultural orientation, attitudes, norms and values of children and its influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia).

Logistic regression describes the relationship between a categorical response variable and a set of predictor variables. A categorical response variable can be a binary variable, an ordinal variable or a nominal variable. Each type of categorical variables requires different techniques to model its relationship with the predictor variables. Logistic regression analysis examines the influence of various factors on a dichotomous outcome by estimating the probability of the event's occurrence. It does this by examining the relationship between one or more independent variables and the log odds of the dichotomous outcome by calculating changes in the log odds of the dependent as opposed to the dependent variable itself. The log *odds ratio* is the ratio of two odds and a summary measure of the relationship between the two variables. The use of the log odds ratio in logistic regression provides a more simplistic description of the probabilistic relationship of the variables and the outcome in comparison to linear regression by which linear relationships and more rich information can be drawn. There are two models of logistic regression including binomial/binary logistic regression and multinomial logistic regression. Binary logistic regression is typically used when the dependent variable is dichotomous and the independent variables are either continuous or categorical variables. Logistic regression is best used in this condition: when the dependent variable is not dichotomous and is comprised of more than two cases, a multinomial logistic regression can be employed. Also referred to as logit regression, multinomial logistic regression has very similar results to binary logistic regression (Anderson).

Poisson regression analysis is based on a generalized linear model which allows to distribute cell count data in a multiway contingency tables. Poisson regression assumes that the response variable Y has a Poisson distribution and assumes that the logarithm of its expected values can be modelled by the linear combination of unknown parameters. A Poisson regression model is sometimes known as a log-linear model, especially when used to model contingency tables. Poisson regression is used for modeling count variables with the assumption that the conditional mean equals to the conditional variance. In other words, this model demonstrates association between independent and dependent variables. Analyses were performed using the GENMOD procedure in SAS 9.2 which can fit Poisson regression models.

7.3.3 Description of the data for modelling using the SAS package

In order to make logistic regression modeling, we used the data of the sample survey "Reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia" SAS 9.2 software. Firstly, from the original data we developed the new data for modeling `data=j.data_1` in Excel, which included list of chosen questions and possible responses by the respondents. Each question and answer were encoded (see Appendix 11). In total `data=j.data_1` has 710 observations and 50 variables.

Then for the binary logistic modeling we created two new variables `nochildb` (childless women against women which have at least one child) `nochildc` (small size families against the families with the higher number of children) in `data=j.data_1`**.** All the variables which have the parameter "0" (no answer) are removed from the data, however then we have the data where the number of observations is decreased whereas we try to use conditions where `eduz ne 0` and etc. The parameter reference categories in variables with reproductive intentions,

attitudes, values, problems, preventive factors were chosen from where more frequencies were concentrated. Since it was necessary to analyse the changes separately for repatriates from Kazakhstan and Ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia we used procedure SORT by country. The SORT procedure orders SAS data set observations by the values of one or more character or numeric variables. The SORT procedure either replaces the original data set or creates a new data set (SAS 9.2 Help).

In order to examine the influence of various factors such as the ideal, desired, planned number of children, the educational level of respondents, the place of residence, the age group of respondents, income and financial situation of the families, the attitude towards abortion on the actual number of children we tried to make modelling with *generalised multinomial logistic regression model, cumulative logistic regression model and binary logistic regression model.* The ***dependent variable*** is the actual number of children and the ***independent variables*** are the ideal, planned, desired number of children, income, education, marital status, place of residence and etc. Age groups of respondents are ***controling variables.*** In order to find out the significant effects of variables we used the ***stepwise selection method***. Stepwise specifies that variables have to be selected based on a stepwise-regression algorithm, which combines forward-selection and backward-elimination steps. This method is a modification of the forward-selection method in that variables already in the model do not necessarily stay there. You can also specify groups of variables to treat as a unit during the selection process. Again, options enable you to specify criteria for entry into the model and for remaining in the model (SAS 9.2 Help). From each explanatory variable (independent) we choose the special parameter reference categories and to test statistical significance we use ***exact test statement***. The EXACT statement performs exact tests of the parameters for the specified *effects* and optionally estimates the parameters and outputs the exact conditional distributions (SAS 9.2 Help).

Binary logistic regression model. Applying principles of the binary logistic modelling we defined four types of models where our task was to put the childless women against women which have at least 1 child and the small size families against the families with the higher number of children:

Model 1: logistic modelling with the explanatory demographic variables (age, education, place, marital status) influencing the actual number of children.

Model 2: logistic modelling with socio-economic variables (income, financial situation, living standard) influencing the actual number of children.

Model 3: logistic modeling with the variables related to reproductive intentions of the respondents as the ideal, planned and desired number of children.

Model 4: logistic modeling with the variables as attitudes towards abortion, preventing problems to have a child, the reasons to have a child, values of children, advices of respondents to unmarried pregnant women and etc. However, our results of modeling with multinomial and binomial logistic regression do not fit in our analysis. We could not find any statistically significant factors on the actual number of children at the level of $p<0.05$ (see Appendixes 12 and 15).

Poisson regression. For more important explanation of the disparity in the results we use generalized linear Poisson regression model. Poisson regression is often used to analyze count

data. It can be used to model the number of occurrences of the event of interest or the rate of occurrence of the event of interest as a function of some independent variables. In SAS, the GENMOD procedure can fit Poisson regression models.

First, we create from original dataset new sas data file `j.kaz sas7bdat` with 710 observations and 26 variables. Using this `j.kaz sas7bdat` data through the *procedure genmod* we will try to make very simple regression model. For this we choose parameter references from each variable. Our tasks were to make four types of regression models with their submodels. In this regression method our dependent variable is the mean number of children where independent variables are the explanatory demographic variables (age, education, place, marital status), socio-economic variables (income, financial situation, living standard), variables related to reproductive intentions of respondents (ideal, planned and desired number of children) and finally variables with attitudes towards abortion, preventing problems to have a child, the reasons to have a child, values of children, advices of respondents to unmarried pregnant women and etc. In other words, poisson regression provides a model that describes how the mean response changes as a function of one or more explanatory variables. This procedure allows to contrast different theoretical sets of predictor variables.

In order to find significant effect of independent variables on the average number of children, simple modeling was used where independent variables with "0" were excluded from the data step by step. SAS ordered categories numerically, from smallest to largest. The likelihood ratio tests the contribution of each effect to the model. If the significance of the test is $p<0.001$, then the effect contributes to the model. The parameter estimate table summarizes the effect of each predictor. The ratio of the coefficient to its standard error, squared, equals to Wald statistic. (1) Parameters with significant negative coefficients decrease the likelihood of that response category with respect to the reference category. (2) Parameters with positive coefficients increase the likelihood of that response category. Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates with the positive coefficient means that variable has positive impact on the dependent variable of the average number of children, and the negative one has negative impact. The contrast estimate result is the result of the ESTIMATE statement. It gives the predicted values of log of the mean number of events (first row for each label) and the predicted mean number of children (labeled Exp), their standard errors, 95 % confidence intervals and the test of the null hypothesis that the mean number of events is 0.

In Example 1 we suppose that the following hypothetical numbers of children data are classified by the two factors: age group (with four levels) and educational level (with three levels). The variables eduz and agegrall are specified as CLASS variables so that PROC GENMOD automatically generates the indicator variables associated with eduz and agegrall. The MODEL statement specifies `nochild` as the response variable `eduz` and `agegrall` as explanatory variables. The maximum likelihood method is used to estimate the parameters of Poisson regression models. Type 1 and Type 3 analyses generate statistical tests for the significance of these effects. Type 1 analysis table displaying each entry in the deviance column represents the deviance for the model containing the effect for that row and all effects preceding it in the table. In example 1, the deviance corresponding to `eduz` in the table is the deviance of the model containing an intercept and `eduz`. As more terms are included in the model, the

deviance decreases. Type 3 analysis results have the same conclusions as Type 1 analysis (overall tests for the effects in the model). In other words, it tests the additional contribution of `eduz` in the model. In order to compare the average number of children from description parts we will calculate the average number of children by procedure MEANS before the modeling. In the result the average number of children from two parts are the same. Then, we included variables step by step in the Model (see Appendix 16).

Example 1

```
proc sort data=j.kaz;
by country;
run;

proc means data=j.kaz mean std var;
where agegr ne 1;
by country;
class agegr;
var nochild;
run;

proc genmod data=j.kaz;
where agegr ne 1;
class agegr (ref='2')/param=ref;
model nochild= agegr/dist=poisson type1 type3;
                output out=b p=pre;
                run;
proc genmod data=j.kaz;
by country;
where income ne 0 and problem_2 ne 0 and living10 ne 0 ;
class agegr(ref='2')income(ref='4')financy (ref='3') living10
(ref='4')/param=ref;
model nochild=agegr income financy living10 /dist= poisson;
                                type1 type3;
                output out=c p=pre
                                run;
```

Explanation of the statements and options used in the program

`class agegr (ref='2') eduz (ref='3') x2n (ref='1') marstat (ref='2') param=ref;` Specifies `agegr` and other variables as classification variable. The remaining variables will be treated as continuous variables in the analysis.

`dist = poisson` specifies Poisson distribution to be used in the model, that is, declares `nochild` to have a Poisson distribution, and requests modeling log of the mean of `nochild` as a linear function of the independent variables. `Type1 and type3` tests for the effects in the model.

The principles of our modeling. Firstly, we make simple submodels that predicted the number of children separately from age groups, education, place of residence, marital status of respondents were used in the beginning. All models were examined separately for Kazakhstan and Mongolia. The impact of each classification variable is estimated and controlled for age. Even so, the age group of respondents would always be used as a controlling variable, in some cases they will be interpreted as independent explanatory variables. This is because of the several hypotheses related to the age group of respondents. It is assumed that (iv) reproductive behaviour of repatriants from Mongolia substantially differs from ethnic Kazakhs living in

Mongolia (differences in behaviour across repatriate groups especially among younger generation) and (v) difficulties of migration will help to make cultural and traditional values and behaviour of repatriants at the older age stronger (value of children, role of husband in a family etc.) whereas the behaviour and attitudes of younger generation differ from those of the older generation. It will depend on the impact of these new living conditions, socio-economic conditions of the new environment, socialization and modernization impact and etc. Our special interest is to find out "what is the predicted average number of children for married women at the the age group of 25–29 years old with higher education that live in urban areas in Kazakhstan compared with Mongolia according to certain factors?'.

The principles of elaborating submodels can be formally written as follows:

Submodel 1 for Kazakhstan (SM1KZ)/Mongolia (SM1MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1* age group;*

Submodel 2 for Kazakhstan (SM2KZ)/Mongolia (SM2MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1* educational level;*

Submodel 3 for Kazakhstan (SM3KZ)/Mongolia (SM3MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1* place of residence;*

Submodel 4 for Kazakhstan (SM4KZ)/Mongolia (SM4MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1*marital status;*

Submodel 5 for Kazakhstan (SM5KZ)/Mongolia (SM5MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1*age group+b2*educational level;*

Submodel 6 for Kazakhstan (SM6KZ)/Mongolia (SM6MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1*age group+b2*educational level+ b3*place of residence;*

The principle of Models can be formally written as follows:

Model I for Kazakhstan (M1KZ)/Mongolia (M1MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1* age group + b2* educational level + b3* place of residence + b4* marital status;*

Model II for Kazakhstan (M2KZ)/Mongolia (M2MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1* age group + b2* income + b3* financy + b4* living condition+b5*acute problem;*

Model III for Kazakhstan (M3KZ)/Mongolia (M3MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1* age group + b2* ideal+ b3* planned + b4* desired;*

Model IV for Kazakhstan (M4KZ)/Mongolia (M4MG): *log (mean number of children)= intercept+ b1* age group + b2* abortion+ b3* advice + b4* value of children;*

8 Reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia

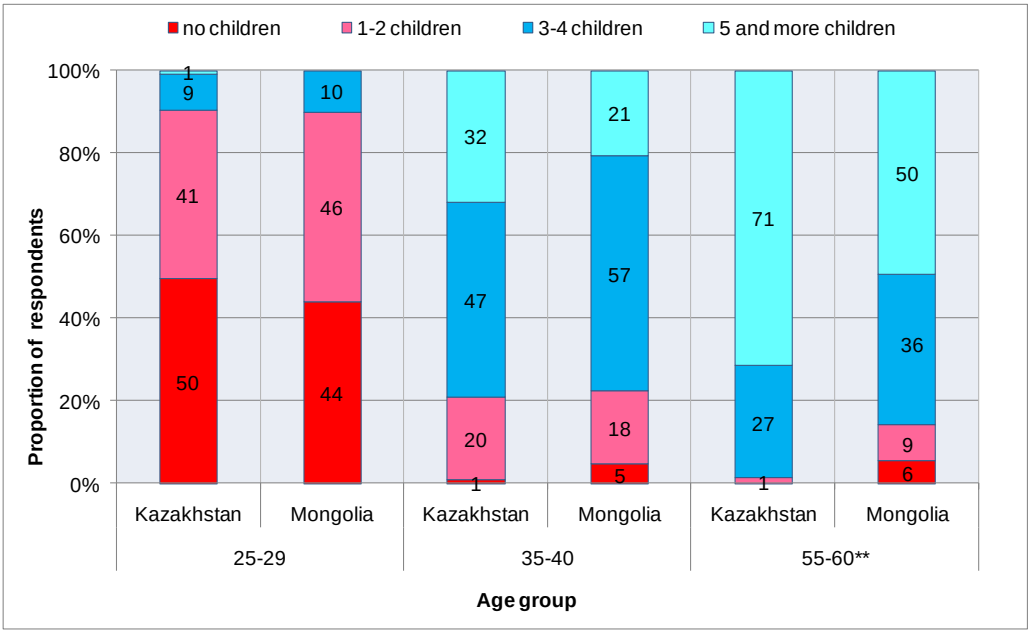
8.1 Number of children ever born

In order to study fertility that reflects reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia, it is necessary to study the value of children. The main changes in fertility of repatriates can be described by the following statements about the number of children: ideal, expected, planned and desired. Before analyzing reproductive behaviour, it is necessary to consider the actual number of respondents' children by age groups, the place of residence and the level of female education. The research hypotheses can be summarized in the following way: reproductive behaviour of female repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia will be different.

8.1.1 Number of children according to the age group

The actual number of children is very important when studying reproductive behaviour. In Figure 1 we represent the comparison of repatriates' and ethnic Kazakhs' actual number of children by age groups. Among the women of 25–29 years old age group 50 % of repatriates and 44 % of ethnic Kazakhs do not have children. Ethnic Kazakhs who have one or two children constitute 46 % in comparison with 41 % of repatriates. The same tendency is with three or four children in both countries: 10 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 9 % of repatriates. In the age group of 35– 40 years, women who gave birth to three or four children constitute 57 % in Mongolia and 47 % in Kazakhstan. However, those who have five and more children prevail among the repatriates with 32 % (ethnic Kazakhs–21 %). Among the age group of 55–60 years 71 % of repatriates and 50 % of ethnic Kazakh women have five and more children. Differences among the distributions of women according to the actual number of children within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only in the case of the age group of 55–60 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance.

Figure 1 – Respondents by number of children ever born and selected age groups, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for 25–29 years p=0.187, for 35–40 years p=0.138, for 55–60 years p=0.005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

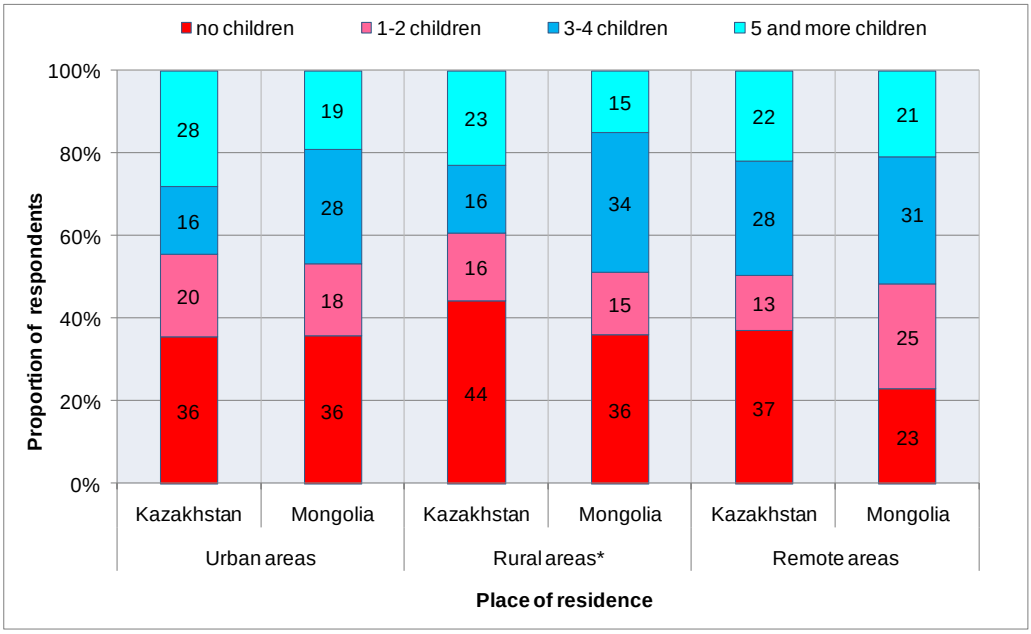
Conclusion

The analysis of the actual number of children by the age group showed that respondents with many children prevail in Kazakhstan (compared to Mongolia) excluding the age group of 25–29 years. Repatriates of 55–60 years old age group, who started their reproductive life in Mongolia and continued in Kazakhstan, have five and more children. Repatriates of 35–40 years old age group who were only at the beginning of their reproductive life usually have three or four children. These two age groups practically do not have childless women. However, repatriates of 25–29 years old age group have fewer children in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs. It depends on marital status and educational level of respondents because 58 % in this age group are married, the rest are single (see Table 10). Despite the level of education, respondents of this age group believe that the ideal age to get married is 22 years (see Appendix 7). From the other hand, it can be connected with the lack of males from non-related families. It was found out that intermarriages do not take place among the repatriates. Repatriates who moved to Kazakhstan belong to the families of Kerei and Naiman. Kazakh people are not allowed to get married with the people from the same family. Opinion poll revealed that intermarriages take place now as relatives very often get married. It is obvious that the hypothesis about the stress disruptions after migration and its negative influence on repatriates was not proven. It is connected with the fact that only large families move to Kazakhstan, thus proving the idea of selectivity of repatriates who came to Kazakhstan to work in agriculture. Regarding younger people, they have postponed the childbearing for later periods of life.

8.1.2 Number of children according to the place of residence

The analysis of the association between the actual number of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs' children by the place of residence (city, village, military barracks) is given in Figure 2. Usually women who live in cities have fewer children than those who live in rural areas. Having compared the general rates of the actual fertility, the following results can be presented: childless respondents prevail in Kazakhstan (36 %). The same situation is with those who have five or more children (28 % in Kazakhstan). In Mongolia 36 % of respondents do not have children and respondents with three to four children constitute 28 % respectively. For women who live in the village or in the somon the results are the following: in Kazakhstan 44 % of women are childless, 23 % of women have five and more children, 16 % of women have one to two children, the same results for those with three or four children; in Mongolia childless women represent 36 % of the total number, those who have three to four children comprise 34 %. According to the place of residence the results are the following: in remote areas, in barracks and bags in Kazakhstan 37 % of women are childless, 28 % of women have three or four children, 22 % of women have five and more children. In Mongolia 31 % of women have three or four children, 23 % of women are childless and 35 % of them have one or two children. Differences among the distributions of women according to the actual number of children within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for rural areas and in other cases they are insignificant.

Figure 2 – Respondents by number of children ever born and place of residence, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.099, for rural areas p=0.031, for remote areas p=0.063
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The hypothesis that women who live in the cities have fewer children than those in rural areas was not proven. The analysis of the differences between the city and aimag showed that women with many children prevail in Kazakhstan, but not in Mongolia. The number of childless

women and women with one or two children is the same in both countries. In rural areas most women are either childless or have many children. Childless women or women with three or four children prevail in the Mongolian somons. In barracks in remote areas there are mostly childless women or those with many children, and in Mongolian bags the majority of women have three or four children. As it can be noticed, repatriates who live in Kazakhstan have five or more children despite the place of residence. According to the results of the opinion poll, more than a quarter of Mongolian women who have five or more children live in bags.

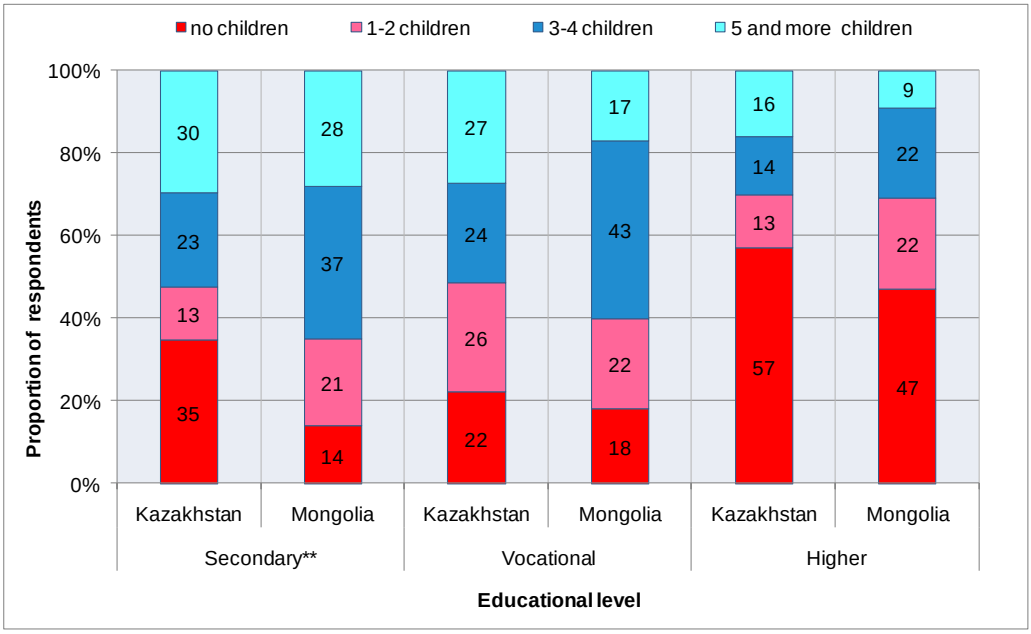
8.1.3 Number of children according to educational level

The particular interest for the research is the influence of education on the children of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs and their intentions to have children themselves. One of the factors that influence reproductive behaviour is education. Women with higher education tend to have fewer children and uneducated women usually have many children. Education in Kazakhstan is more available than in Mongolia. Repatriates have a lot of chances to get education free of charge. The state supports them by giving special educational grants for education. Education in Mongolia is paid, ethnic Kazakhs cannot pay the tuition. In Figure 3 we represent the association between the actual number of repatriates and ethnic Kazakh children by the level of education. In Kazakhstan, 35 % of women with secondary education do not have children, those who have five and more children constitute 30 % and those with three or four children comprise 23 %. In Mongolia the proportions are 14 %, 28 % and 37 % respectively. Among the women with vocational education in Kazakhstan women with five and more children represent 27 %, three or four children–24 %, childless women constitute 26 % and women with one or two children–22 %. Mongolia has the distribution where 17 % have five and more children, 43 % have three or four children. Despite the country of residence, the majority of female respondents with higher education do not have children (57 % in Kazakhstan, 47 % in Mongolia).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the actual number of children within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women with secondary education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Based on the analysis the following hypothesis was confirmed: the more educated a woman is, the fewer children she has. Higher education influences repatriates in Kazakhstan.

Figure 3 – Respondents by number of children ever born and attained level of education, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.005, for vocational education p=0.084, for higher education p=0.058
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

8.1.4 Number of children according to marital status

The analysis of the actual number of children according to marital status of mothers can be seen in Table 14. All married women in Kazakhstan have children; however 18 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are childless women. The proportion of childless women without partners is higher among ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (19 %) than among the repatriates from Kazakhstan (6 %). The proportion of women who have one or two children is higher among the women without partners (27 %) and married women (24 %) in Mongolia in comparison with Kazakhstan (12 % of married and 19 % women without partners). Among the married women there is approximately the same proportion of women who have three or four children in both countries (35 % and 37 %). However, 27 % of women without partners in Mongolia have three or four children, in Kazakhstan their proportion is only 19 %. The proportion of women with five and more children is the same and higher among married (54 %) and repatriates without partners in Kazakhstan if to compare with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (21 % and 27 % respectively).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the actual number of children within marital status are statistically significant only for married women at the level of 0.1 %. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Married women in Mongolia postponed the child birth before getting some financial and social stability. The possible reasons for postponed child birth are standard of living, poverty and etc. Despite the marital status, repatriates from Kazakhstan have more children than ethnic Kazakhs from Mongolia.

Table 14 – Respondents by number of children ever born and marital status, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Country	Number of children			
		no children	1–2 children	3–4 children	5 and more children
Married women***	KZ	0	12	35	54
	MG	18	24	37	21
Women without partners	KZ	6	19	19	56
	MG	19	27	27	27

Notes: Student test for married women p<0.0005, for women without partners p=0.266
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

8.1.5 Number of children according to the age group and place of residence

In Table 15 the comparison of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs' actual number of children by age groups and by place of residence is presented. The proportion of childless women at the age group of 25–29 years is higher in Kazakhstan in rural (70 %) and remote areas (47 %) than in Mongolia (39 %), except for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia from urban areas (49 %). The proportion of women who have one or two children is higher in urban areas in Kazakhstan (57 %) in comparison with Mongolia (40 %). Among the women with one or two children higher number is observed among ethnic Kazakhs from rural (48 %) and remote areas (50 %) than among the repatriates respectively (30 % and 40 %). The same tendency is with three or four children in both countries (10 % and 13 %). Women which have five and more children can be found among the repatriates from urban areas (3 %). As for women at the age group of 35–40 years, the proportion of women with five and more children is higher in urban areas in Kazakhstan (47 %) than in Mongolia (17 %). However, in Mongolia the larger proportion of women with three or four children lives in urban areas (52 %). About 40 % of repatriates from rural areas and 77 % of ethnic Kazakhs have three or four children. Among the remote areas there is a larger proportion of women who have three or four children living in Kazakhstan (65 %) in comparison with Mongolia (55 %). In the age group of 55–60 years, women who have five and more children prevail among the repatriates from urban (80 %) and rural (72 %) areas in Kazakhstan when compared to Mongolia respectively (54 % and 46 %). Women from remote areas with five and more children prevail among the repatriates (64 % in Kazakhstan and 48 % in Mongolia).

Table 15 – Respondents by number of children ever born, selected age groups, and place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Place	Country	Number of children				Total
			no children	1–2 children	3–4 children	5 and more children	
25–29	Urban areas	KZ	30	57	10	3	100
		MG	49	40	12	0	100
	Rural areas*	KZ	70	30	0	0	100
		MG	39	48	13	0	100
	Remote areas	KZ	47	40	13	0	100
		MG	39	50	11	0	100
35–40	Urban areas*	KZ	0	17	37	47	100
		MG	6	25	52	17	100
	Rural areas*	KZ	3	33	40	23	100
		MG	5	5	77	13	100
	Remote areas	KZ	0	10	65	25	100
		MG	3	18	55	24	100
55–60	Urban areas	KZ	0	0	20	80	100
		MG	4	4	38	54	100
	Rural areas	KZ	0	0	28	72	100
		MG	9	5	41	46	100
	Remote areas	KZ	0	4	32	64	100
		MG	4	17	30	48	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas: at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.249, 35–40 years p=0.028, 55–50 years p=0.210;Student test for rural areas: at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.022, 35–40 years p=0.032, 55–50 years p=0.106;Student test for remote areas: at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.753, 35–40 years p=0.563, 55–50 years p=0.232

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the actual number of children within the age groups and the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 25–29 years old respondents in rural areas and for the age group of 35–40 years old respondents in urban and rural areas. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Among the respondents at the age group of 25–29 years a higher number of women with one or two children lives in urban areas in Kazakhstan while in Mongolian towns a higher number of childless women can be observed. However, in rural and remote areas in Kazakhstan childless women prevail and women who have one or two children prevail in Mongolia. Women with three or four children prevail in rural and urban areas in Mongolia among the respondents at the age group of 35–40 years, except for women from remote areas in Kazakhstan. However, the higher number of women with five and more children lives in all places of residence in Kazakhstan. Despite the place of residence, respondents at the age group of 55–60 years with five and more children live

in Kazakhstan, especially in urban areas. Despite the place of residence and age group, higher number of women with children lives in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia.

8.1.6 Number of children according to the age group and educational level

The analysis of the actual number of children by the age group and by educational level of mothers can be seen in Table 16. The higher number of childless women at the age group of 25–29 years is observed among the repatriates with higher education (66 %) compared to ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (55 %). The proportion of women with one or two children is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (63 % of secondary and vocational education) in comparison with the repatriates from Kazakhstan (46 % and 54 %). The number of women with secondary education who have three or four children is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. However, women who have five and more children constitute only 4 % among the secondary educated repartiants in Kazakhstan. The number of women with three or four children prevails among the respondents at the age group of 35–40 years which is higher among the women with higher (80 %) and vocational education (59 %) in Mongolia compared to Kazakhstan respectively (44 % and 40 %), except for repatriates with secondary education (56 %). It is interesting to find out that 45 % of women with higher education from Kazakhstan have five and more children while in Mongolia it is only 5 % respectively. For women at the age group of 55–60 years the situation is as follows: among the women with secondary education there is a higher number of women with five and more children in Kazakhstan (78 %) than in Mongolia (53 %). If among the women with vocational education higher number is for women with five and more children in Kazakhstan (65 %), in Mongolia on the contrary, women with three or four children constitute 47 %. The number of women with higher education who have five and more children is higher among the repatriates in Kazakhstan (67 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (47 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the actual number of children within the age groups and the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 25–29 years old respondents with secondary education and for the age group of 35–40 years old respondents with higher education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. The repatriates at the age of 35–40 years who were 21 when moving to Kazakhstan, have more children than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Despite the high level of education, repatriates from Kazakhstan have many children. The new society, the educational level and difficulties of migration did not influence reproductive behaviour of repatriates from that generation. It resembles the behaviour of their mothers who have a lot of children as well. The chosen hypothesis that women with higher education have fewer children was proven to be right for ethnic Kazakhs who live in Mongolia.

Table 16 – Respondents by number of children ever born, selected age groups, and attained level of education number, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Education	Country	Number of children				Total
			no children	1–2 children	3–4 children	5 and more children	
25–29	Secondary*	KZ	31	46	19	4	100
		MG	4	63	33	0	100
	Vocational	KZ	43	54	4	0	100
		MG	25	63	13	0	100
	Higher	KZ	66	32	3	0	100
		MG	55	43	2	0	100
35–40	Secondary	KZ	0	14	56	31	100
		MG	5	18	50	27	100
	Vocational	KZ	4	36	40	21	100
		MG	4	28	59	10	100
	Higher*	KZ	0	11	44	45	100
		MG	5	10	80	5	100
55–60	Secondary	KZ	0	3	19	78	100
		MG	2	9	36	53	100
	Vocational	KZ	0	0	35	65	100
		MG	12	0	47	41	100
	Higher	KZ	0	0	33	67	100
		MG	5	11	37	47	100

Notes: Student test for secondary education: at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.038, 35–40 years p=0.497, 55–60 years p=0.086; Student test for vocational education: at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.474, 35– 40 years p=0.477, 55–60 years p=0.079; Student test for higher education: at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.558, 35–40 years p=0.016, 55–60 years p=0.601;
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

8.2 Planned number of children

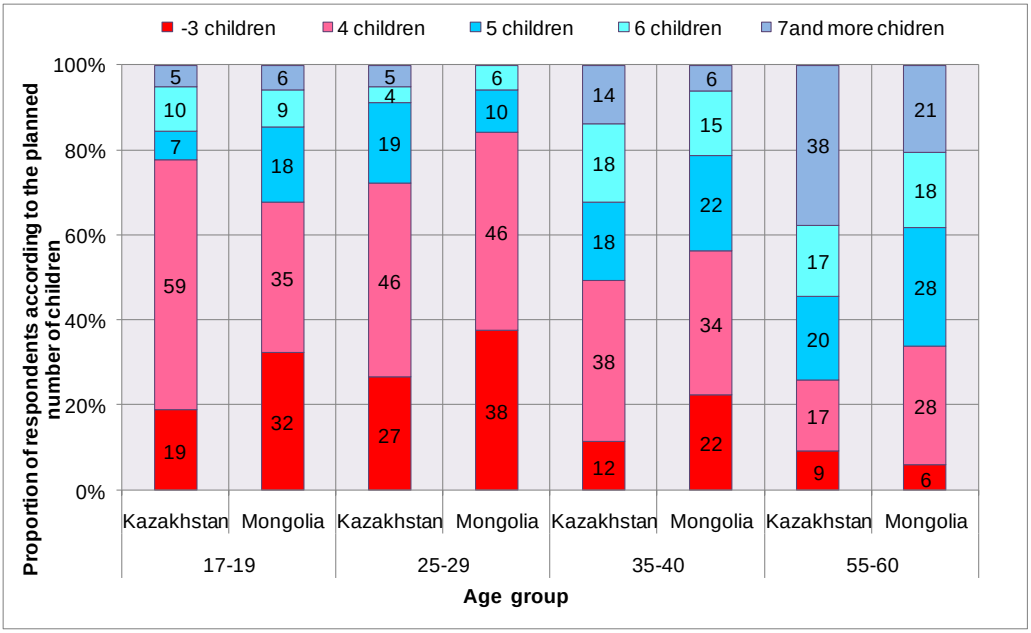
Planned number of children shows how people see their current standard of living and what the perspectives for the future are. These attitudes also influence the usage of birth control and the possibilities of having abortion. The research results proved that abortion is viewed as a big sin in Kazakhstan. Only if there is a threat for mother's health, can the abortion be used to save her. That is why the following factors are important for the consideration of the planned number of children: age groups, place of residence, level of education among the women and the actual number of children that respondents have.

8.2.1 Planned number of children according to the age group

Figure 4 shows the analysis of the association of the planned number of children by the age group of respondents. 17–19 years old repatriates plan to have three or four children (59 %), 35

% of ethnic Kazakhs plan to have the same amount of children. About 32 % of ethnic Kazakhs plan to have three children and 19 % of repatriates plan to do so. The proportion of those who plan to have six children is the same for both groups (9–10 %). About 46 % of 25–29 year old people from both groups plan to have four children. 38 % of people in Mongolia and 27 % of people in Kazakhstan from this age group plan to have three children. About 19 % of repatriates in Kazakhstan and 10 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia plan to have five children. In the groups of 35–40 years old the situation is as follows: 38 % of repatriates and 34 % of ethnic Kazakhs plan to have four children; 15 % of repatriates and 22 % of ethnic Kazakhs are oriented to five children. About 22 % of ethnic Kazakhs plan to have three children and the same percentage wants to have five children. In Kazakhstan those proportions amount to 18 %. 55–60 years old women are out of their reproductive age. For this age group the statistics is as follows: 38 % of repatriates and 21 % of ethnic Kazakhs plan to have seven and more children. Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within the age groups are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance in all cases.

Figure 4 – Respondents by planned number of children and selected age groups, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for the age groups of respondents: 17–19 years p=0.179, 25–29 years p=0.127, 35–40 years p=0.144, 55–60 years p=0.120

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Planned number of 2 children:

In Kazakhstan at the age groups: 17–19 years (9 %), 25–29 years (7 %), 35–40 years (5 %), 55–60 years (1 %);

In Mongolia at the age groups: 17–19 years (10 %), 25–29 years (9 %), 35–40 years (3 %), 55–60 (0 %);

Notes (ii): Planned number of 3 children:

In Kazakhstan at the age groups: 17–19 years (10 %), 25–29 years (20 %), 35–40 years (7 %), 55– 60 years (8 %);

In Mongolia at the age groups: 17–19 years (22 %), 25–29 years (29 %), 35–40 years (19 %), 55–60 years (6 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The following tendency prevails among the repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs if we consider their age groups: all respondents plan to have four children, but there are more women who plan to have three children in Mongolia. The second generation of repatriates who lives in Kazakhstan is oriented on having many children in comparison with the peers who live in Mongolia. It means that the tendency of having a lot of children is not observed among the repatriates, even among the second generation. The possible reasons are the example of parents, origin from large families, governmental support of large families, the ideal family as viewed by many traditional ethnic Kazakhs, the way of living and less influence of the local society and isolation from the local society. However, the tendency of having fewer children was observed in Mongolia. It might be connected with low living standards there.

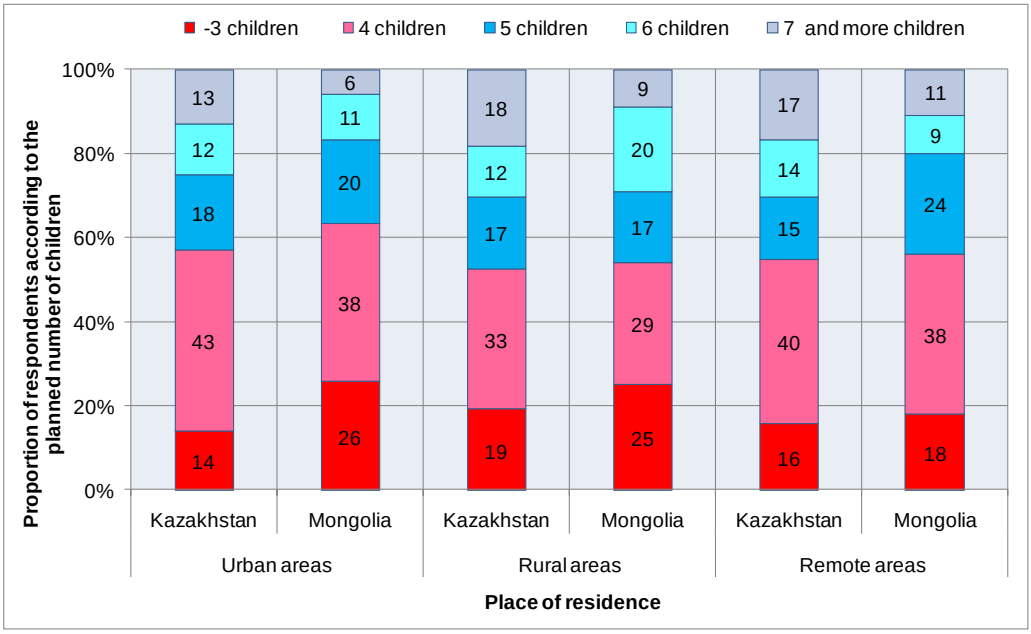
8.2.2 Planned number of children according to the place of residence

The analysis of the association in accordance with the place of residence of respondents can be observed in Figure 5. As for urban population 38 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 43 % of repatriates plan to have four and more children; for five children the distribution is 18 % and 20 % respectively; for six children it is 12 % and 11 %. 26 % of women in Mongolia and 14 % of women in Kazakhstan plan to have three children. If we consider the opinions of women from rural areas then 33 % in Kazakhstan and 29 % in Mongolia plan to have four and more children. However, more people in Mongolia plan to have three children (25 %), and 18 % of people in Kazakhstan plan to have seven and more children. The rate of those who want to have five children is approximately the same–17 %. About 40 % of women who live in remote areas in Kazakhstan and 38 % of women in Mongolia plan to have four children. Then, 24 % of women in Mongolia plan to have five children, 17 % in Kazakhstan want seven and more children.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance in all cases. The research showed that there are many women who plan to have seven and more children in Kazakhstan. Despite the place of residence, all respondents plan to have four children. It clearly shows the tendency of having four children. However, the tendency is a little bit different in Mongolia. People start to think about having three children there. The possible reason is low standards of living, poverty and etc.

Figure 5 – Respondents by planned number of children and place of residence, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for place of residence: in urban areas p=0.140, in rural areas p=0.346, in remote areas p=0.405
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Planned number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: urban areas (1 %), rural areas (3 %), remote areas (8 %);
In Mongolia: urban areas (7 %), rural areas (7 %), remote areas (5 %);
Notes (ii): Planned number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: urban areas (13 %), rural areas (16 %), remote areas (8 %);
In Mongolia: urban areas (19 %), rural areas (18 %), remote areas (13 %);

Source: Own survey data

8.2.3 Planned number of children according to educational level

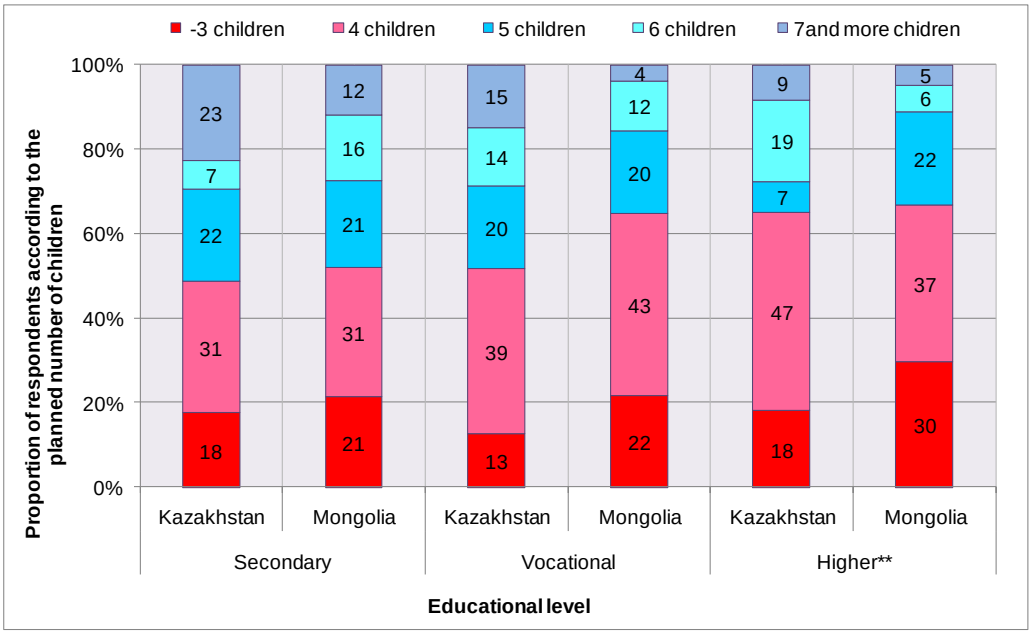
In Figure 6 we represent the assosiation between repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs according to the planned number of children within the level of education. About 31 % of women who have secondary education usually plan to have four children. This result is the same for Mongolia and Kazakhstan. The same result is for those who plan to have five children (21 % and 22 %). However, 23 % of repatriates in Kazakhstan who have secondary education plan to have seven and more children. Among the women with vocational education 20 % of women in both countries would like to have five children, 43 % in Mongolia and 39 % in Kazakhstan would like to have four children. However, 22 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia with vocational education start thinking about having just three children. About 47 % of Kazakh women with higher education think about having four children. In Mongolia 37 % have the same intentions. About 30 % of well-educated women in Mongolia would like to have three, seven and more children, only 18 % of women would like to do so in Kazakhstan (see Figure 6).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women with higher education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Many demographic research papers show the interconnection between the

level of education and fertility. Indeed, the decrease of fertility in western countries and the former USSR republics is often connected with the boosting increase in the educational level of women. At the same time, high fertility prevails in the countries of the third world where the availability of good education is low and does not comply with world standards. Usually the status of women in such countries is low as well. The research proved the hypothesis about the association between the level of education and fertility. The more educated a woman is, the fewer children she will have in the future and vice versa. Despite the low educational level, the respondents plan to have large families. However, ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia started thinking about having fewer children.

Figure 6 – Respondents by planned number of children and attained level of education, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.058, for vocational education p=0.246, for higher education p= 0.002

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Planned number of 2 children:

In Kazakhstan: secondary education (4 %), vocational education (2 %), higher education (6 %);

In Mongolia: secondary education (2 %), vocational education (7 %), higher education (10 %);

Notes (ii): Planned number of 3 children:

In Kazakhstan: secondary education (14 %), vocational education (11 %), higher education (12 %);

In Mongolia: secondary education (19 %), vocational education (15 %), higher education (20 %);

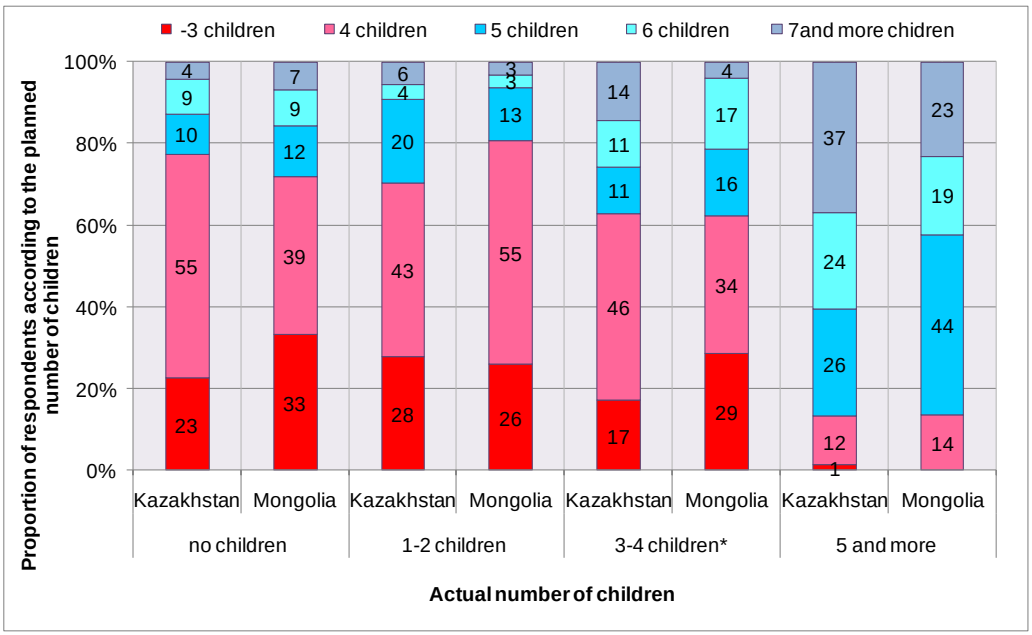
Source: Own survey data

8.2.4 Planned number of children according to children ever born

Association between respondents according to the planned within the actual number of children is represented in Figure 7. Among the childless women 55 % in Kazakhstan and 39 % in Mongolia plan to have four children in the future. About 33 % in Mongolia and 23 % in Kazakhstan plan to have three kids. In both countries only 9–10 % of women would like to have five and more children in the future. About 55 % of women who already have one or two children plan to have four children in Mongolia and only 43 % of women have the same intentions in Kazakhstan. 28 % of women in Mongolia and 26 % in Kazakhstan plan to have three children, 20 % in Kazakhstan would like to have five children and 13 % would like to do

so in Mongolia. 4–6 % of women in Kazakhstan think about having six and more children, only 3 % of ethnic Kazakhs have the same plans. About 29 % of Mongolian respondents and 17 % of women in Kazakhstan with three or four children do not plan to have children any more. Among them 46 % of repatriates in Kazakhstan and 34 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia plan to have four children. The percentage of women who would like to have five-six kids is 11 % for repatriates and 17 % for ethnic Kazakhs. 14 % of repatriates showed the intention to have seven children in their families, in Mongolia only 4 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have large families. The share of women who have five and more children but planned to have only four some time ago is the same for both countries (12 %, 14 %). Those women who are satisfied with the number of children that they have constitute 44 % in Mongolia and 26 % in Kazakhstan. Women who plan to have six children fall into the same category because they already have the desired number of children. In this case women who plan to have seven and more children are more important for the research. In Kazakhstan 37 % of women would like to have seven children while in Mongolia this proportion equals to 23 %.

Figure 7 – Respondents by planned and number of children ever born, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for the actual number of children: no children p=0.384, 1–2 children p=0.683, 3–4 children p=0.033, 5 and more children p=0.193
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Planned number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: no children (11 %), 1–2 children (9 %), 3–4 children (1 %), 5 and more children (0 %);
In Mongolia: no children (23 %), 1–2 children (8 %), 3–4 children (2%), 5 and more children (0 %);
Notes (ii): Planned number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: no children (12 %), 1–2 children (19 %), 3–4 children (16 %), 5 and more children (1 %);
In Mongolia: no children (10 %), 1–2 children (18 %), 3–4 children (27 %), 5 and more children (0 %);
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women who have three or four children. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. The analysis of the planned and actual number of children showed

that repatriates will continue to have many children and the tendency of having small families is not observed. Moving to Kazakhstan did not influence the plans of repatriates. In comparison with ethnic Kazakhs from Mongolia, repatriates are oriented to have more children. It means that Kazakhstan influences repatriates in a positive way. Despite the moving, they stick to the old reproductive behaviour. Women with children show their positive example to childless women. Childless women are the second generation of the migrants and women at the age of 25–29 years who are growing up in the Kazakh society.

8.2.5 Planned number of children according to marital status

Planned number of children according to marital status of respondents is represented in Table 17. The proportion of women who plan to have three children in the future is higher among the single (32 %) and married respondents (17 %) in Mongolia compared to Kazakhstan (22 % and 16 %), except for repatriates without partners (25 %). Repatriates with the plan to have four kids is higher among the women without partners (67 %), single (55 %) and married women (39 %) and only 27 %, 32 % and 30 % in Mongolia correspondingly. The number of those who plan to have five children is approximately the same for single women (24 %) and for women without partners (23 %) in Mongolia compared to Kazakhstan (11 %), except for married women repatriates (23 %). The proportion of women who plan to have six children is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (18 % married and 9 % of women without partners) in comparison with repatriates in Kazakhstan (13 % and 8 %), except for single repatriates which constitute 8 %. The proportion of those who plan to have seven and more children is higher in Mongolia (27 % of women without partners, 20 % of married and 12 % of single women) compared to Kazakhstan respectively (10 % and 4 %).

Table 17 – Respondents by planned number of children and marital status, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Country	Planned number of children					Total
		-3	4	5	6	7+	
Single women	KZ	22	55	11	8	4	100
	MG	32	32	24	0	12	100
Married women	KZ	16	39	23	13	10	100
	MG	17	30	15	18	20	100
Women without partners*	KZ	25	67	0	8	0	100
	MG	14	27	23	9	27	100

Notes: Student test for single women p=0.074, for married women p=0.070, for women without partners p=0.025
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Planned number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: single women (9 %), married women (3 %), women without partners (17 %);
In Mongolia: single women (12 %), married women (3 %), women without partners (0 %);
Notes (ii): Planned number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: single women (13 %), married women (13 %), women without partners (8 %);
In Mongolia: single women (20 %), married women (14 %), women without partners (14 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within the marital status are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women without partners. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Despite marital status all respondents plan to have four children. It clearly shows the tendency of having four children. However, the tendency is a little bit different in Mongolia. The people start to think about having five and seven and more children there. The possible reason is low standards of living, poverty and etc.

8.2.6 Planned number of children according to the age group and place of residence

The analysis of association between the planned number of children by age group and place of residence is presented in Table 18. When considering the opinions of women at the age group of 25–29 years, a larger proportion of women plans to have four children in Kazakhstan (in urban areas–63 %, in rural areas–54 %, in remote areas–56 %) compared to Mongolia (28 %, 18 % and 39 % respectively). A larger number of women plans to have six children among urban population in Mongolia (25 %) compared to Kazakhstan (21 %). The proportion of respondents who plan to have three children is the same in urban (16 %) and rural areas (16 % and 14 %) in both countries, except for repatriates from remote areas (22 %). Among the rural population there are 13 % of women with five children in Kazakhstan while in Mongolia there are 36 % of women who plan to have seven children in the future. Despite the place of residence respondents at the age group of 35–40 years plan to have four children which is higher among the repatriates (in urban areas–44 %, in rural areas–39 %, in remote areas–54 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (24 %, 20 % and 44 % respectively). The proportion of women who plan to have three children is higher among the repatriates from rural (31 %) and remote (23 %) areas except for women from urban areas in both countries (24 %). About 28 % of repatriates from urban areas and 15 % from rural and remote areas plan to have five children while in Mongolia the proportion of women with that opinion is 24 % in urban and 27 % in rural areas. However, the number of women who plan to have seven children is higher in Mongolia (in urban areas–17 %, in rural areas–20 %, in remote areas–26 %,) than in Kazakhstan (4 % in urban and remote areas, 8 % in rural areas). Among the women at the age group of 50–55 years, women who plan to have four children prevail and the proportion is higher in Kazakhstan (in urban areas–37 %, in rural areas–43 %, in remote areas–39 %) than in Mongolia (29 %, 38 % and 32 %). A quarter of women from urban areas in Mongolia would like to have three children. Despite the place of residence in Kazakhstan the number of women who plan to have five and six children is higher while in Mongolia women who plan to have six and seven children prevail in remote areas.

Table 18 – Respondents by planned number of children, selected age groups, and place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Place	Country	Planned number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7 +	
25–29	Urban areas	KZ	16	63	0	21	0	100
		MG	16	28	19	25	12	100
	Rural areas	KZ	16	54	13	8	8	100
		MG	14	18	14	18	36	100
	Remote areas	KZ	22	56	6	6	11	100
		MG	13	39	13	13	22	100
35–40	Urban areas	KZ	24	44	28	0	4	100
		MG	24	24	24	11	17	100
	Rural areas	KZ	31	39	15	8	8	100
		MG	26	20	27	7	20	100
	Remote areas	KZ	23	54	15	4	4	100
		MG	11	44	11	7	26	100
55–60	Urban areas	KZ	5	37	32	26	0	100
		MG	24	29	18	18	11	100
	Rural areas	KZ	18	43	25	11	4	100
		MG	19	38	13	13	19	100
	Remote areas	KZ	12	39	12	19	19	100
		MG	5	32	5	26	32	100

Notes: Student test for the age groups of 25–29 years: urban areas p=0.083, rural areas p=0.098, and remote areas p=0.416; For the age groups of 35–40 years: urban areas p=0.190, rural areas p=0.607, remote areas p=0.295; For the age groups of 55–60 years:urban areas p=0.298, rural areas p=0.527, remote areas p=0.688;
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Planned number of 2 children:
For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (5 %), rural areas (8 %), and remote areas (11 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (9 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (4 %), rural areas (8 %), and remote areas (8 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (2 %), rural areas (13 %), and remote areas (4 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (4 %), and remote areas (8 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
Note (ii): Planned number of 3 children:
For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (11 %), rural areas (8 %), and remote areas (11 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (13 %), rural areas (5 %), and remote areas (13 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (20 %), rural areas (23 %), and remote areas (15 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (22 %), rural areas (13 %), and remote areas (7 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (5 %), rural areas (14 %), and remote areas (4 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (21 %), rural areas (19 %), and remote areas (5 %);
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within the age groups and given categories of the place of residence are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance in all cases. Despite the place of residence and the age group, all respondents plan to have four children, but their number is higher among the repatriates. However, more than a quarter of 25–30 years old women who live in urban areas plan to have six children in both countries. Urban areas are mostly populated by young people

who are active and can be employed. However, it is not easy for all of them to be employed which makes them see having children as a source of financial support (see Table 14b Result 3). Women at the age of 35–40 years who live in remote areas of Mongolia (mostly inhabited by cattle-breeders) plan to have even more children. It can be explained by the traditional way of life where children usually help in the household.

8.2.7 Planned number of children according to the age group and educational level

The analysis of association between the planned number of children by the age group and educational level of mothers is presented in Table 19. The higher number of women who plan to have four children at the age group of 25–29 years can be found among the repatriates in Kazakhstan (secondary–69 %, vocational–67 %, higher–44 %) than among ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (39 %, 17 % and 23 %). The number of women who plan to have three children is higher among the repatriates (secondary–19 %, vocational–12 %, higher–22 %) in Kazakhstan if comparing with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (9 % and 17 %). The number of secondary (26 %) and higher (20 %) educated women who plan to have six children is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia, except for repatriates with vocational education (22 %). The same number of secondary educated (13 %) women plan to have seven and more children in the future, 33 % of ethnic Kazakhs with vocational and 23 % with higher education. When considering the opinions of women at the age group of 35–40 years old, they plan to have four children and their number prevails among the repatriates with higher education (50 %) and the same among the women with secondary and vocational education (43 % and 44 %) compared to ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (secondary–38 %, vocational–13 %, higher–23 %). If among the women with secondary education in Kazakhstan higher number of women plans to have three (20 %) and five (27 %) children, then in Mongolia the same number of women plans three to seven and more children (17 %) and 19 % of women plan to have five children. Among the women with vocational education women who plan to have three children is same in both countries (29 % and 30 %). The number of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia who plan to have five and seven children is the same (25 %). Among the university educated women 27 % of respondents plan to have seven children and 20 % of them five and six children in Mongolia and 26 % of repatriates plan to have three and 21 % five children in the future. For women at the age group of 55–60 years the situation is as follows: among the women with secondary education there is a higher number of women who have four (43 %) and five (20 %) children in Kazakhstan. About 23 % of ethnic Kazakhs plan to have four and six children and 21 % of them three and seven children. Approximately the same proportion of women with vocational education plan to have four (43 % and 44 %) and six children (17 % and 19 %) in both countries. 23 % of repatriates plan to have five children. In Kazakhstan 25 % of university educated women plan to have three, five and six children, in Mongolia 18 % of ethnic Kazakhs plan to have five and seven and 41 % plan four children.

Table 19 – Respondents by planned number of children, selected age groups,and attained level of education, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Education	Country	Planned number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
25–29	Secondary	KZ	19	69	0	0	13	100
		MG	9	39	14	26	13	100
	Vocational	KZ	12	67	0	22	0	100
		MG	0	17	33	17	33	100
	Higher	KZ	22	44	15	11	7	100
		MG	17	23	17	20	23	100
35–40	Secondary**	KZ	23	43	27	3	3	100
		MG	21	38	19	6	17	100
	Vocational	KZ	30	44	9	9	9	100
		MG	29	13	25	8	25	100
	Higher	KZ	26	50	21	0	4	100
		MG	7	27	20	20	27	100
55–60	Secondary	KZ	12	43	20	17	9	100
		MG	21	23	13	23	21	100
	Vocational*	KZ	10	43	23	17	7	100
		MG	13	44	13	19	13	100
	Higher	KZ	25	13	25	25	12	100
		MG	12	41	18	12	18	100

Notes: Student test for the age groups of 25–29 years: secondary education p= 0.071, vocational education p=0.551, higher education p=0.072; Student test for the age groups of 35–40 years: secondary education p=0.010, vocational education p=0.147, higher education p=0.841; Student test for the age groups of 55–60 years: secondary education p=0.235, vocational education p=0.037, higher education p=0.499;

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Planned number of 2 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (0 %), vocational education (6 %), higher education (15 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (0 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (16 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (3 %), vocational education (4 %), higher education (13 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (4 %), vocational education (8 %), higher education (0 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (6 %), vocational education (3 %), higher education (0 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (0 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (6 %);

Notes (ii): Planned number of 3 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (19 %), vocational education (6 %), higher education (7 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (9 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (11 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (20 %), vocational education (26 %), higher education (13 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (17 %), vocational education (21 %), higher education (7 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (6 %), vocational education (7 %), higher education (25 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (21 %), vocational education (13 %), higher education (6 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within the age groups and the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 35–40 years old respondents with secondary education and for the age group of 55–60 years old respondents with vocational education. In other cases they

have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Despite their age and educational level, women who plan to have four children prevail among the repatriates from Kazakhstan. However, the influence of education was observed among the women with secondary education at the age of 35–40 years. More than a quarter of the repatriates plan to have five children, ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia plan to have seven children. It can be assumed that the repatriates with secondary education were influenced by the difficulties of migration because it is difficult to find a job for women without any qualifications.

8.2.8 Planned number of children according to marital status and place of residence

The analysis of the association between the planned number of children by marital status and the place of residence can be seen in Table 20. If taking into account the opinions of single women, a higher number of women plans to have four children in urban areas (64 %) in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia (31 %), except for women from remote areas (67 % in Mongolia, 54 % in Kazakhstan). 39 % of ethnic Kazakh single women from urban areas plan to have five children, 67 % of women from rural areas would like to have three and 33 % of women from remote areas plan to have seven children. Approximately the same proportion of single women would like to have three children in both countries (urban areas in Mongolia–31 %, and remote areas in Kazakhstan–30 %). Despite the place of residence, married women in both countries plan to have four children which is higher among the repatriates from urban (39 %) and remote areas (45 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (27 % and 33 % respectively). The number of women from rural areas is the same (32 %) in both countries. The number of women who plan to have five children is higher in urban (31 %) and rural (22 %) areas in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia (17 % and 15 %). However, 24 % of ethnic Kazakhs from rural areas would like to have six children. The number of ethnic Kazakhs from remote areas who plan to have seven children is higher (26 %) than among the repatriates (18 %). Among urban population women who live without partners in both countries plan to have three children 50 %, and 50 % of repatriates would like to have four and 50 % of ethnic Kazakhs five children. Among the rural population 100 % of repatriates would like to have four children. About 50 % of the ethnic Kazakh women who live without partners plan to have seven children, 33 % of women plan to have five children. Among the population from remote areas the same number of women (50 %) would like to have four children in the future. About 33 % of repatriates plan to have three children. Approximately the same proportion of women in both countries plans to have seven children (25 % and 26 %).

Table 20 – Respondents by planned number of children, marital status, and place of residence , repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Place	Country	Planned number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
Single women	Urban areas**	KZ	14	64	5	18	0	100
		MG	31	31	39	0	0	100
	Rural areas	KZ	22	51	16	5	5	100
		MG	67	0	17	0	17	100
	Remote areas	KZ	30	54	8	4	4	100
		MG	0	67	0	0	33	100
Married women	Urban areas	KZ	16	39	31	13	3	100
		MG	19	27	17	20	16	100
	Rural areas	KZ	24	32	22	14	8	100
		MG	14	32	15	15	24	100
	Remote areas	KZ	8	45	16	13	18	100
		MG	12	33	12	18	26	100
Without partners	Urban areas	KZ	50	50	0	0	0	100
		MG	50	0	50	0	0	100
	Rural areas*	KZ	0	100	0	0	0	100
		MG	0	0	33	17	50	100
	Remote areas	KZ	33	50	0	18	26	100
		MG	8	50	8	8	25	100

Notes: Student test for single: urban areas p=0.010, rural areas p=0.054, and remote areas p=0.206; Student test for married women: urban areas p=0.114, rural areas p=0.459, and remote areas p=0.761; Student test for women without partners: urban areas p=0.223, rural areas p=0.019, and remote areas p=0.240

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Planned number of 2 children:

For single respondents in Kazakhstan: urban areas (5 %), rural areas (8 %), and remote areas (15 %);
For single respondents in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (50 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Kazakhstan: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (5 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (2 %), and remote areas (2 %);
For women without partners in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (33 %);
For women without partners in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);

Notes (ii): Planned number of 3 children:

For single respondents in Kazakhstan: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (14 %), and remote areas (15 %);
For single respondents in Mongolia: urban areas (31 %), rural areas (17 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Kazakhstan: urban areas (13 %), rural areas (19 %), and remote areas (8 %);
For married women in Mongolia: urban area (16 %), rural area (12 %), and remote area (10 %);
For women without partners in Kazakhstan: urban areas (50 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For women without partners in Mongolia: urban areas (50 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (8 %)

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the planned number of children within marital status and the given categories of place of residence are statistically significant only for single women at the level of 0.1 % in urban areas and at the level of 5 % for women who live without partners and in other cases they are insignificant. Reproductive behaviour of the repatriates differs from that of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Among the single women in

remote areas there are more women who plan to have two children and there are no women who would like to have four children. Single women in Kazakhstan plan to have four children. The repatriates who live without partners (widows at the age of 55–60 years) in rural areas plan to have four children, ethnic Kazakhs would like to have seven children. It clearly shows the picture of the living conditions in rural areas in both countries that influence the reproductive behaviour of women (see Appendices 26 and 27). However, the repatriates in remote areas started to plan two or three children; ethnic Kazakhs in remote areas plan to have seven children. It can be connected with the way of life as the repatriates are pretty settled as opposed to ethnic Kazakhs who still prefer a nomadic way of life. Children help them a lot in the household.

8.3 Desired number of children

The desired number of children shows readiness of the parents to have a certain number of children having all the necessary conditions to do so. To analyze the association of the desired number of children by the age groups, place of residence, the level of education and the actual number of children, the following question was asked "If you had a job, sufficient income and a place to live, how many children would you like to have?"

8.3.1 Desired number of children according to the age group

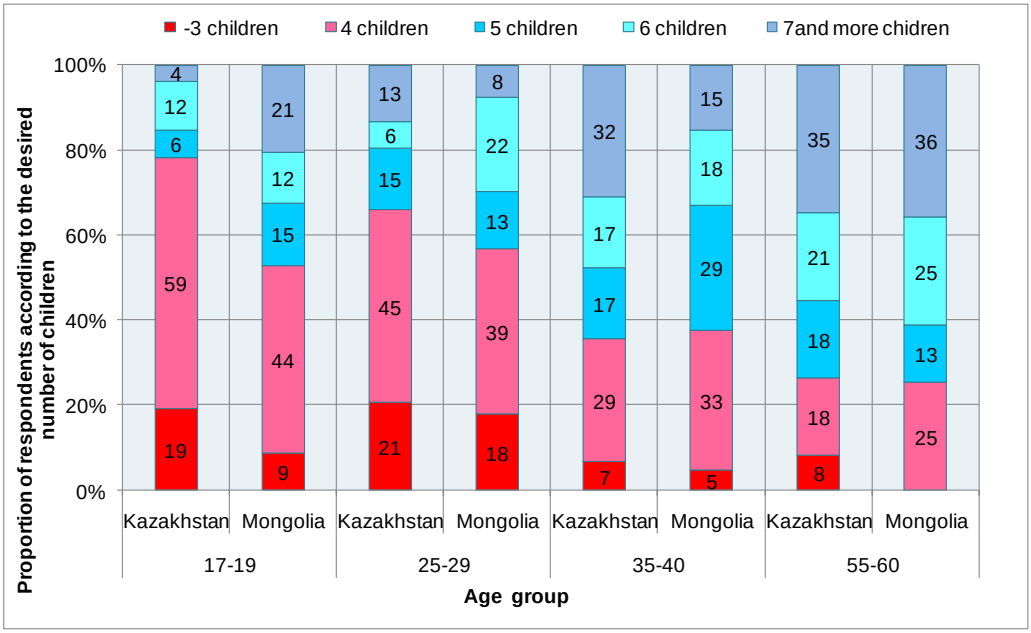
The analysis of the association of the desired number of children by the age groups of respondents is represented in Figure 8. The majority of repatriates of the second generation and ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 17–19 years answered that they would like to have 4 children (59 % in Kazakhstan and 44 % in Mongolia). As it can be seen from Figure 8, more women want to have seven children in Mongolia (29 %) while in Kazakhstan more women would like to have three children (19 %). 49 % of repatriates and 39 % of ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 25–29 years would like to have four children. Those who would like to have three children comprise 21 % in Kazakhstan and 18 % of ethnic Kazakhs. 22 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia would like to have six and more children. Only 6 % of repatriates would do the same in Kazakhstan. When considering the age group of 35–40 years old, 32 % of repatriates would like to have seven and more children (15 % in Mongolia). 33 % of women in Mongolia would like to have four children (29 % in Kazakhstan). If in Mongolia 29 % of women would like to have five children then in Kazakhstan they constitute only 17 %. The last age group to observe is 55–60 years old. Despite the fact that women of this age group are out of reproductive age, it was interesting for the research to consider their opinion. Having seven and more children seemed attractive to 35 % of respondents in Kazakhstan and 36 % in Mongolia. Respondents from Mongolia were oriented to have large families. It is known that women of this age will not be able to have children, however, their intentions will positively influence younger generations.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within the age groups are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance in all cases.

The analysis of the answers to the question asked showed that reproductive behaviour of respondents from the age groups of 35–40 and 55–60 years are similar as they all would like to have more than six children. The opinions of the second generation of migrants and 25–29 years old respondents are focused on having four children. The desired number of children is decreasing among the people from young age groups. They do not want to have so many children as their grandmothers and mothers. However, both countries will not experience a shift to only small/large families.

Figure 8 – Respondents by desired number of children and selected age groups, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



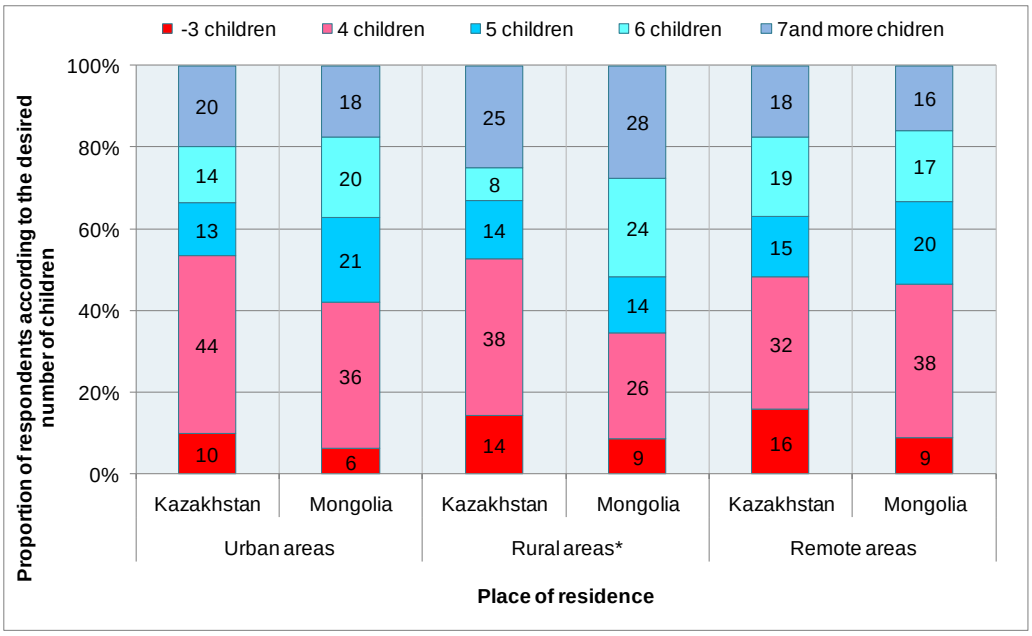
Notes: Student test for the age groups:17–19 years p=0.109, 25–29 years p=0.060, 35–40 years p=0.089, 55–60 years p=0.124
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Desired number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan for the age groups: 17–19 years (12 %), 25–29 years (5 %), 35–40 years (2 %), 55–60 years (3 %);
In Mongolia for the age groups: 17–19 years (3 %), 25–29 years (6 %), 35–40 years (0 %), 55–60 years (0 %);
Notes (ii): Desired number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan for the age groups: 17–19 years (8 %), 25–29 years (16 %), 35–40 years (5 %), 55–60 years (5 %);
In Mongolia for the age groups: 17–19 years (6 %), 25–29 years (12 %), 35–40 years (5 %), 55–60 years (0 %);
Source: Own survey data

8.3.2 Desired number of children according to the place of residence

The analysis of the association between the desired number of children and the place of residence of respondents is represented in Figure 9. When considering it among urban population, 36 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 44 % of repatriates desire to have four and more children. The share of women who would like to have five (21 %), six or seven and more children is approximately the same among ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. However, the proportion of women who would like to have seven and more children is larger among the repatriates in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. If we consider the opinions of women from rural areas, in Kazakhstan (38 %) predominates the proportion of women who desire to have four and more children compared with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (26 %).

About 32 % of women who live in remote areas in Kazakhstan and 38 % of women in Mongolia desire to have four children.

Figure 9 – Respondents by desired number of children and place of residence, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.280, for rural areas p=0.038, for remote areas p=0.582
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Desired number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: urban areas (1 %), rural areas (4 %), remote areas (5 %);
In Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (2 %), remote areas (2 %);
Notes (ii): Desired number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: urban areas (9 %), rural areas (10 %), remote areas (11 %);
In Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (7 %), remote areas (7 %);
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

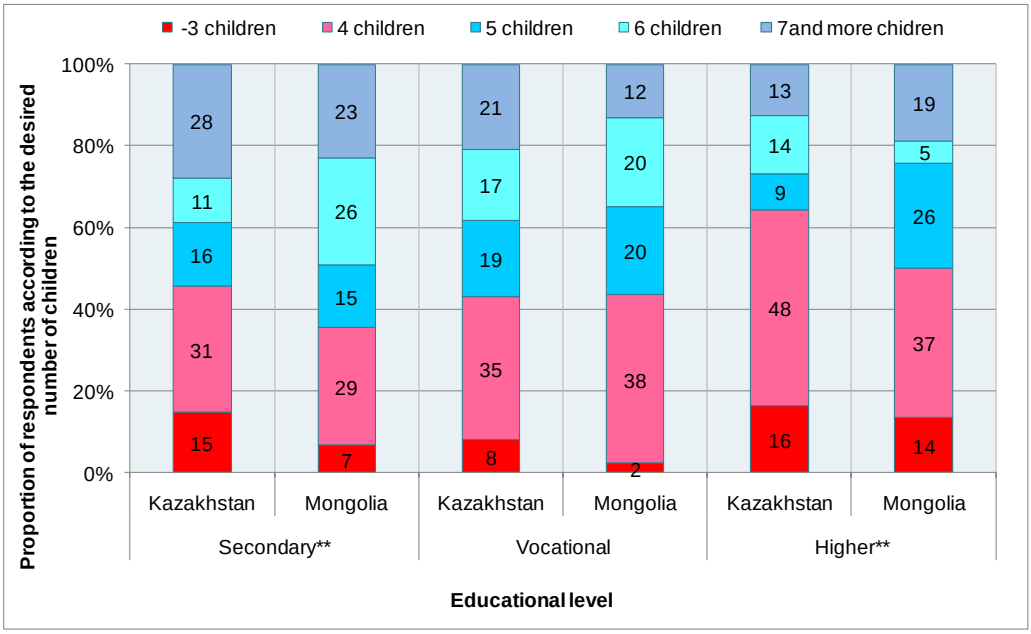
Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for rural areas and in other cases they are insignificant. The analysis of the desired number of children according to the place of residence revealed that most of them would like to have four children. Despite the place of residence, all respondents desire to have four children. It means that repatriates who arrived from Mongolia 18 years ago, in spite of the place of residence, demonstrated behaviour of old environment.

8.3.3 Desired number of children according to educational level

Figure 10 shows the influence of education on the desired number of children. About 31 % of female repatriates and 29 % of ethnic Kazakhs with secondary education would like to have 4 children. Next group consists of women who would like to have seven and more children (28 % in Kazakhstan and 23 % in Mongolia). About 15 % of women in both countries would like to have five children; however 26 % of women in Mongolia think about six children. 15 % of repatriates in Kazakhstan would like to have three children and only 7 % of women in Mongolia would like to do so. As for female repatriates with vocational education, 35 % of

repatriates in Kazakhstan plan to have four children, the proportion in Mongolia is a little larger. Among them 20 % of women think about five/six children in Mongolia. The proportion for Kazakhstan is 17 % and 19 % respectively. However, 21 % of the females in Kazakhstan would like to give birth to seven and more children. Now the group of women with higher education will be considered. About 48 % of women in Kazakhstan would like to have four children while 37 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to do so and 19 % of women are oriented to have seven and more children (13 % in Kazakhstan). Then, 26 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have five children. The proportion for those who would like to have three children is the same for both countries.

Figure 10 –Respondents by desired number of children and attained level of education , repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.010, for vocational education p=0.265, for higher education p= 0.007
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Desired number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: secondary (3 %), vocational (0 %), higher (6 %);
In Mongolia: secondary (1 %), vocational (0 %), higher (7 %);
Notes (ii): Desired number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: secondary (12 %), vocational (8 %), higher (10 %);
In Mongolia: secondary (6 %), vocational (2 %), higher (7 %);

Source: Own survey data

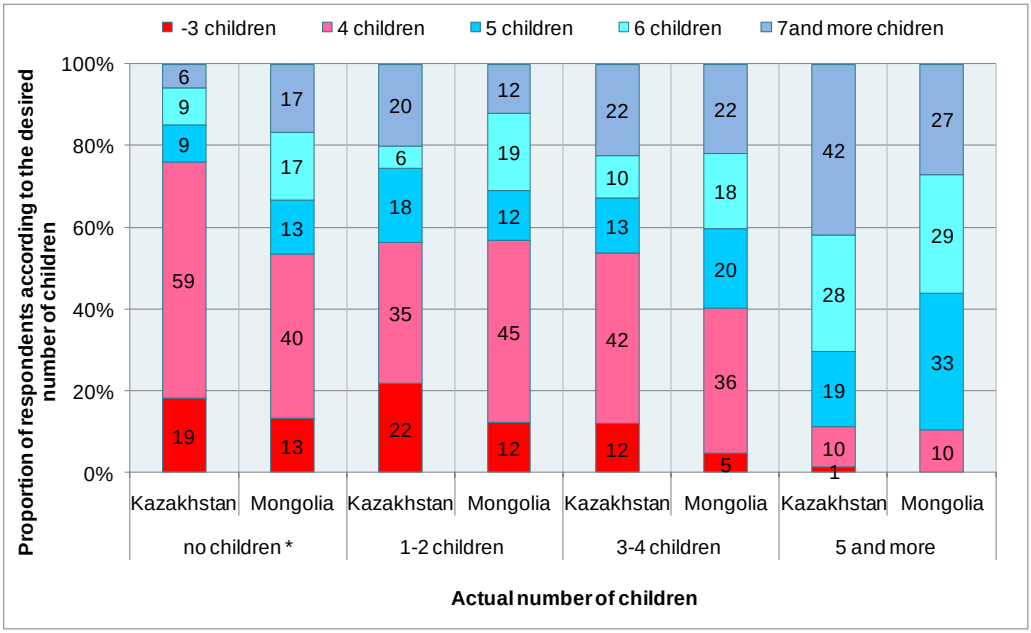
Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women with secondary education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. The analysis of the desired number of children by the educational level of the female respondents revealed that most of them would like to have four children. The connection between education and the desired number of children exists. The following hypothesis is proved: women with higher education want to have fewer children compared with other women. Those women who do not have higher education want to have many children.

8.3.4 Desired number of children according to children ever born

In Figure 11 we can observe the association between the desired number of children and the actual number of children. Among the childless women 59 % in Kazakhstan and 40 % in Mongolia desire to have four children in the future. The number of respondents who desire to have three children is higher in Kazakhstan compared with Mongolia. 45 % of women who already have one or two children plan to have four children in Mongolia and only 35 % of women have the same intentions in Kazakhstan. The proportion of women who desire to have three children is larger in Kazakhstan (22 %) than in Mongolia (12 %). Respondents with three or four children who desire to have five or six children prevail among the repatriates (20 %) compared with ethnic Kazakhs (10 %). However, respondents who plan to increase the number of their children to seven or more children show the same results for both countries (22 %). Among the women with five and more children the proportion of women who would like to have seven and more children is higher in Kazakhstan (42 %) in comparison with Mongolia (27 %).

Figure 11 – Respondents by desired and number of children ever born, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.039, for 1–2 children p=0.081, for 3–4 children p=0.246, for 5 and more children p=0.268

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Desired number of 2 children:

In Kazakhstan: no children (8 %), 1–2 children (6 %), 3–4 children (3 %), 5 and more children (0 %);

In Mongolia: no children (6 %), 1–2 children (2 %), 3–4 children (0 %), 5 and more children (0 %);

Notes (ii): Desired number of 3 children:

In Kazakhstan: no children (11 %), 1–2 children (16 %), 3–4 children (9 %), 5 and more children (1 %);

In Mongolia: no children (7 %), 1–2 children (10 %), 3–4 children (5 %), 5 and more children (0 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for childless women and in other cases they are insignificant. Childless repatriates and repatriates

who have one or two children from Kazakhstan do not want to have large families. The optimal number of children for them is four. It is obvious that movement to Kazakhstan has influenced the desired number of children among the female repatriates who do not have children. These females are from the second generation of migrants and 41 % of 25–29 year olds are not married yet (see Appendix 5).

8.3.5 Desired number of children according to marital status

The analysis of the association between the desired number of children and marital status of respondents is presented in Table 21. Desired number of three children is higher among the repatriates in Kazakhstan (single–19 %, married women–12 %, and women without partners–6 %) than in Mongolia (16 %, 8 % and 5 % respectively). As for single population, 39 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 56 % of repatriates would like to have four children. The number of women who would like to have five children is approximately the same in both countries (8 % in Mongolia and 9 % in Kazakhstan). However, the number of respondents who would like to have six (15 %) and seven and more children (23 %) is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in comparison with repatriates in Kazakhstan (10 % and 5 % respectively). When considering the opinions of married women, in Kazakhstan (29 %) women who would like to have four children prevail compared with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (24 %). The number of women who would like to have five children is the same in both countries (18 % and 19 % respectively). The number of women who would like to have six (22 %) and seven and more children (28 %) is higher among ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia in comparison with repatriates in Kazakhstan (15 % and 25 %). As for women who live without partners, 80 % of women in Kazakhstan and 35 % of women in Mongolia would like to have four children. The number of women who would like to have six (7 %) and seven and more children is approximately the same among the repatriates in Kazakhstan. About 40 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia would want to have seven and more children.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within marital status are statistically significant only for single women at the level of 5 % and in other cases they are insignificant. Despite the marital status, all the respondents desire to have four children. However, reproductive behaviour of single repatriates who arrived from Mongolia 19 years ago differs from that of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The following hypothesis is proved: reproductive behaviour of the second generation of single repatriates from Mongolia substantially differs from ethnic Kazakhs living in Mongolia and the reasons are: (i) influence of the new environment and (ii) new life conditions.

Table 21 – Respondents by desired number of children and marital status, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Country	Desired number of children					Total
		-3	4	5	6	7+	
Single women*	KZ	19	56	9	10	5	100
	MG	16	39	8	15	23	100
Married women	KZ	12	29	19	15	25	100
	MG	8	24	18	22	28	100
Women without partners	KZ	6	80	0	7	7	100
	MG	5	35	10	10	40	100

Notes: Student test for single women p=0.050, for married women p=0.784, for women without partners p=0.140
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Desired number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: single (10 %), married (2 %), women without partners (6 %);
In Mongolia: single (4 %), married (2 %), women without partners (0 %);
Notes (ii): Desired number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: single (9 %), married (10%), women without partners (0 %);
In Mongolia: single (12 %), married (6 %), women without partners (5 %);
Source: Own survey data

8.3.6 Desired number of children according to the age group and place of residence

The analysis of the association between the desired number of children by the age group and the place of residence can be seen in Table 22. When considering the opinions of women at the age group of 25–29 years, there is a larger proportion of women who would like to have four children in Kazakhstan (in urban areas–71 %, in rural areas–60 %, in remote areas–41 %) than in Mongolia (29 %, 15 % and 35 % respectively). The number of women who would like to have three children is higher in remote areas (30 %) in Kazakhstan (in urban–12 %, in rural–14 %) than in Mongolia (10 %). However, the desired number of children as six (in urban–26 %, in rural and remote areas–20 %) and seven children (29 %, 40 % and 25 % respectively) is found more frequently among the ethnic Kazakhs than repatriates from Kazakhstan (six children: 17 %, 10 % and 15 % respectively). The number of women who would like to have five children is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs from remote (15 %) and rural areas (10 %). Despite the place of residence, respondents at the age group of 35–40 years would want to have four children and their number is higher among the repatriates (in urban areas–46 %, in rural and remote areas–44 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (23 % and 38 % respectively). Approximately the same number of women in all types of settlements in both countries would like to have three children (in Kazakhstan 18 % and 22 %, in Mongolia 8 % and 13 %. Among the ethnic Kazakhs there is a larger proportion of women who would like to have five (29 % in remote and 23 % in rural areas), six (in urban–26 %) and seven children (30 % and 31% in urban and rural areas, 17 % in remote areas) in comparison with repatriates from Kazakhstan. Among the women from urban areas at the age group 55–60 years there is a larger proportion of repatriates who would like to have seven (30 %) children, 25 % of them would want four and six children. About 27 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have four and five and 24 % of them

six children. Among the rural areas in Kazakhstan more women would want to have four children (36 %) while in Mongolia more women are confident about having seven children. Among the respondents from remote areas a higher number of women would want to have four (30 % in Kazakhstan, 31 % in Mongolia) and seven children in both countries (30 % and 38 % respectively). A quarter of the ethic Kazakhs from rural areas would like to have three children.

Table 22 – Respondents by desired number of children, selected age groups, and place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Place	Country	Desired number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
25–29	Urban areas**	KZ	12	71	0	17	0	100
		MG	10	29	6	26	29	100
	Rural areas*	KZ	14	60	10	10	7	100
		MG	10	15	15	20	40	100
	Remote areas	KZ	30	41	7	15	7	100
		MG	0	35	20	20	25	100
35–40	Urban areas	KZ	18	46	11	7	18	100
		MG	13	23	9	26	30	100
	Rural areas	KZ	22	44	15	4	15	100
		MG	8	23	23	15	31	100
	Remote areas	KZ	20	44	20	8	8	100
		MG	12	38	29	4	17	100
55–60	Urban areas	KZ	0	25	20	25	30	100
		MG	3	27	27	24	18	100
	Rural areas	KZ	11	36	21	11	21	100
		MG	20	13	20	7	40	100
	Remote areas	KZ	4	30	19	19	30	100
		MG	6	31	0	25	38	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.010, 35–40 years p=0.114, 55–60 years p=0.796; Student test for rural areas at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.018, 35–40 years p=0.301, 55–60 years p=0.442; Student test for remote areas at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.075, 35–40 years p=0.601, 55–50 years p=0.342;

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Note (i): Desired number of 2 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (8 %), rural areas (7 %), and remote areas (19 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (5 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (4 %), rural areas (7 %), and remote areas (4 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (8 %), and remote areas (8 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (4 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);

Note (ii): Desired number of 3 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (4 %), rural areas (7 %), and remote areas (11 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (7 %), rural areas (5 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (14 %), rural areas (15 %), and remote areas (16 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (13 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (4 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (11 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (20 %), and remote areas (6 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within the age groups and the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 25–29 years old respondents in urban areas, at the level of 5 % for the this age group of respondents in rural areas and in other cases they are insignificant. As it was revealed by the analysis, the opinions of the younger repatriates are different. They were brought up and grew up in the new society. The repatriates from Kazakhstan would like to have four children if they have all the necessary conditions. The opinions of repatriates from urban and rural areas differ from those in remote areas. Less than a quarter of the female respondents would like to have six or seven children. As it was revealed by the opinion poll, the first group of repatriates who could find their place in the new society lives in urban and rural areas. The remote areas are inhabited with repatriates from the second group who could not integrate into the new society. Despite the living conditions of the repatriates from the remote areas, they dream of having more children and will have more if everything necessary is available. It proves that the poorer the family is, the more children they would like to have. The following hypothesis was proven: the new society and living conditions influence reproductive behavior of repatriates from urban and rural areas.

8.3.7 Desired number of children according to the age group and educational level

The analysis of the association between the desired number of children by the age group and education of mothers is presented in Table 23. The higher number of women who want to have four children at the age group of 25–29 years can be found among the repatriates in Kazakhstan (secondary–64 %, vocational–54 %, higher–55 %) than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (47 %, 20 % and 21 % respectively). There are more women with secondary education who would like to have five, six and seven (13 %) children in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan (14 % and 9 %). About 23 % of repatriates with secondary education desire to have three children. If repatriates with vocational education would like to have three (16 %) and six (26 %) children, in Mongolia 40 % of repatriates would want to have seven and 20 % of them five and six children. If 18 % of repatriates with higher education would want to have three and six children, than 27 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have six and 32 % of them seven children. As for the opinions of women at the age group of 35–40 years who would like to have four children, such situation is typical for repatriates (secondary–47 %, vocational 52 %, and higher 36 %) and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (34 %, 20 % and 14 %). 25 % of ethnic Kazakhs with secondary and 24 % of repatriates with higher education would like to have five children. In Mongolia 40 % of women with vocational and 50 % of women with higher education would like to have seven children. A quarter of repatriates with vocational and higher education want to have three children. Among the women with secondary education at the age group of 55–60 years 35 % of repatriates want to have four children and 30 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have seven children. Among the women with vocational education at this age group 29 % of repatriates would want to have four and seven children, in Mongolia 31 % of ethnic Kazakhs want to have four and 23 % of them five and seven children. Among the repatriates with higher education

there is a larger proportion of women who would like to have seven children (57 %). Approximately the same number of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have four and seven children (31 and 32 %).

Table 23 – Respondents by desired number of children, selected age groups, and attained level of education, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Education	Country	Desired number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
25–29	Secondary*	KZ	23	64	0	5	9	100
		MG	13	47	13	10	13	100
	Vocational	KZ	16	54	8	23	0	100
		MG	0	20	20	20	40	100
	Higher	KZ	18	55	9	12	6	100
		MG	9	21	12	27	32	100
35–40	Secondary*	KZ	16	47	13	10	13	100
		MG	16	34	25	14	12	100
	Vocational*	KZ	24	52	8	4	12	100
		MG	8	20	8	24	40	100
	Higher	KZ	20	36	24	4	16	100
		MG	7	14	7	21	50	100
55–60	Secondary**	KZ	6	35	22	19	19	100
		MG	12	18	18	21	30	100
	Vocational	KZ	3	29	23	16	29	100
		MG	8	31	15	23	23	100
	Higher	KZ	14	14	0	14	57	100
		MG	0	31	19	19	32	100

Notes: Student test for the the age group of 25–29 years: secondary education p=0.029, vocational education p=0.721, higher education p=0.308; Student test for the age groups of 35–40 years: secondary education p=0.025, vocational education p=0.022, higher eduction p=0.909; Student test for the age groups of 55–60 years: secondary education p=0.011, vocational education p=0.060, higher education p=0.285

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Desired number of 2 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (9 %), vocational education (12 %), higher education (12 %);

For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (0 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (3 %);

For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (3 %), vocational education (4 %), higher education (8 %);

For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (7 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (0 %);

For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (3 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (0 %);

For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (0 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (0 %);

Notes (ii): Desired number of 3 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (14 %), vocational education (4 %), higher education (6 %);

For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (13 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (6 %);

For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (13 %), vocational education (20 %), higher education (12 %);

For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (9 %), vocational education (8 %), higher education (7 %);

For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (3 %), vocational education (3 %), higher education (14 %);

For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (12 %), vocational education (8 %), higher education (0 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within the age groups and the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 5 % for the age group of 25–29 years and 55–60 years old respondents with secondary education and for the age group of 35–40 years old respondents with secondary and vocational education. In other cases they have been found insignificant. The opinions of respondents from this age group are different despite their upbringing in Mongolia. 19 years ago they were at the end of their reproductive life when moving to Kazakhstan. As it was mentioned before, the selected group of repatriates moved to Kazakhstan. These are the families of cattle-breeders, shepherds with large families who were poor in Mongolia and moved when they got an opportunity to have a new life in the country of their ancestors. The state supported their moving to work back in Kazakhstan. It was interesting to find out that repatriates who have secondary education would like to have four or five children. However, their number is higher in comparison with repatriates who have vocational or higher education. Ethnic Kazakhs would like to have six or seven children. It should be mentioned that repatriates from this age group have more children than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (see Figure 1).

8.3.8 Desired number of children according to marital status and place of residence

The analysis of the association between the desired number of children by marital status and the place of residence can be seen in Table 24. When considering the opinions of single women, there is a larger proportion of women who would like to have four children in urban areas (69 %) and rural areas (59 %) in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia (36 % and 20 %), except for women from remote areas (57 % in Mongolia, 43 % in Kazakhstan). About 21 % of ethnic Kazakh single women from urban and rural areas and 29 % of women from remote areas would like to have seven children. A quarter of the single ethnic Kazakhs from urban and rural areas and 20 % of repatriates from remote areas desire to have three children. 40 % of ethnic Kazakhs from rural areas would want to have six and 21 % of them from urban areas would want to have three children. As for married women, the number of women who would like to have four children is higher among the repatriates (in urban areas–31 %, in rural and remote areas–28 %) than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (25 %, 19 %, and 26 % respectively). The number of married women who would like to have seven children is higher in Mongolia (in urban areas–28 %, in rural areas–35 %) in comparison with repatriates from Kazakhstan (26 % and 22 %) and except for women from remote areas (28 %). The same number of women from rural areas of both countries would want to have five children (22 %). Among the women from remote areas 28 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 22 % of repatriates would like to have five children. Women who live without partners have the following interesting results: 100 % of repatriates from urban areas would want to have four children and 25 % of women from urban areas in Mongolia desire to have three, four, five and six children. Among the repatriates from rural areas 80 % of women would want to have four children and 20 % of them seven children. About 67 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have seven children and 17 % of them five and six children. Among the population from remote areas, 67 % of repatriates would want to have four and 17 % of them

three and six children. The desired number of children for ethnic Kazakhs from remote areas is four (60 %) and seven (40 %).

Table 24 – Respondents by desired number of children,marital status, and place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Place	Country	Desired number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
Single women	Urban areas*	KZ	12	69	4	15	0	100
		MG	21	36	14	7	21	100
	Rural areas	KZ	16	59	11	7	7	100
		MG	20	20	0	40	20	100
	Remote areas	KZ	20	43	11	11	5	100
		MG	0	57	0	14	29	100
Married women	Urban areas	KZ	12	31	14	17	26	100
		MG	6	25	13	28	28	100
	Rural areas	KZ	17	28	22	11	22	100
		MG	14	19	22	11	35	100
	Remote areas	KZ	6	28	22	17	28	100
		MG	10	26	26	19	21	100
Women without partners	Urban areas	KZ	0	100	0	0	0	100
		MG	25	25	25	25	0	100
	Rural areas	KZ	0	80	0	0	20	100
		MG	0	0	17	17	67	100
	Remote areas	KZ	17	67	0	17	0	100
		MG	0	60	0	0	40	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas: single women p=0.023, married women p=0.687, without partners p=0.187;
Student test for rural areas: single women p=0.108, married women p=0.874, women without partners p=0.051;
Student test for remote areas: single women p=0.250, married women p=0.813, women without partners p=0.124
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Desired number of 2 children:
For single respondents in Kazakhstan: urban areas (8 %), rural areas (7 %), and remote areas (16 %);
For single respondents in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (20 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Kazakhstan: urban areas (2 %), rural areas (3 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Mongolia: urban areas (1 %), rural areas (3 %), and remote areas (5 %);
For women without partners in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (17 %);
For women without partners in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
Notes (ii): Desired number of 3 children:
For single respondents in Kazakhstan: urban areas (4 %), rural areas (9 %), and remote areas (14 %);
For single respondents in Mongolia: urban areas (21 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Kazakhstan: urban areas (10 %), rural areas (14 %), and remote areas (6 %);
For married women in Mongolia: urban areas (5 %), rural areas (11 %), and remote areas (5 %);
For women without partners in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For women without partners in Mongolia: urban areas (25 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the desired number of children within marital status and the given categories of the place of residence are statistically

significant only for single women at the level of 5 % and in other cases they are insignificant. Repatriates who live without partners are widows from Kazakhstan. They want to have four children. Ethnic Kazakhs from rural and remote areas would want to have more children, about seven and more. However, this is not possible for them as they belong to the oldest age group.

8.4 Ideal number of children

The ideal number of children shows socially accepted norm of reproductive behaviour. The analysis of the ideal number of children can help to find out the number of children which is considered to be ideal by the society and can also help to distinguish the difference between Kazakhstan and Mongolia. The educational level is not important in this case. The analysis of the association given according to the age groups, the place of residence and the actual number of children.

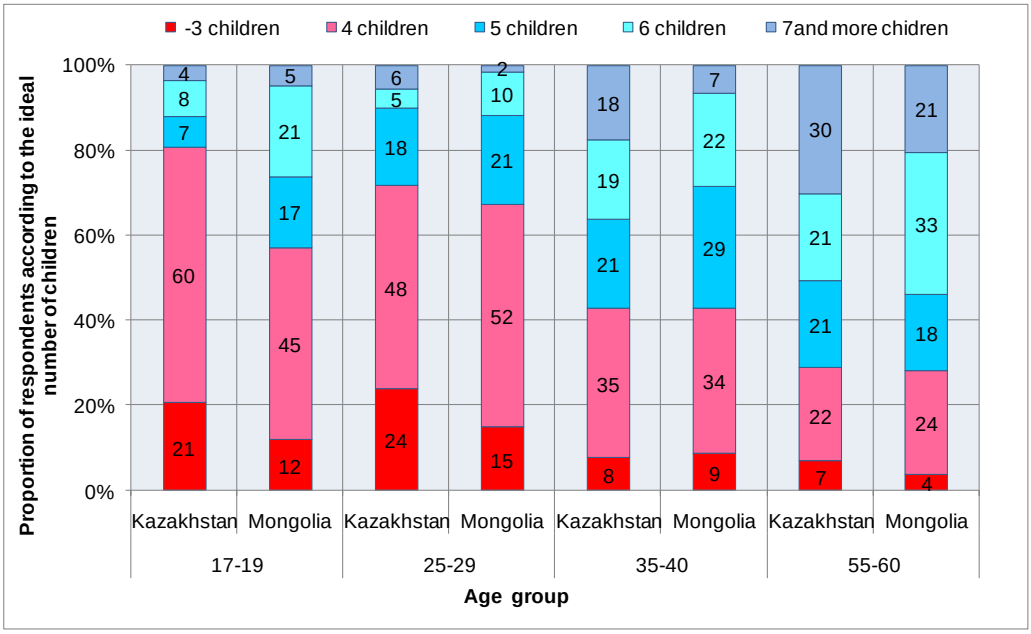
8.4.1 Ideal number of children according to the age group

The opinions about the ideal number of children in a family of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs are similar for the homogeneous generations (see Figure 12). The young groups of 17–19 years old consider 4 and more children to be ideal (60 % in Kazakhstan and 45 % in Mongolia). 21 % of repatriates would like to have three children, ethnic Kazakhs consider five (17 %) and six children (21 %) to be ideal. Among the respondents at the age group of 25–29 years four children are considered to be the ideal number of children and it is higher in Mongolia (52 %) in comparison with Kazakhstan (48 %). Among the respondents at the age of 35–40 who considered that the ideal number of children is four is the same for both countries (35 %). Women at the age of 55–60 years are out of their reproductive age. However, the share of women who consider that the ideal number of children is seven and more children is higher in Kazakhstan (30 %) than in Mongolia (21 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the ideal number of children within the age groups are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance in all cases. Four children are considered as ideal in young families. Old people out of their reproductive age consider large families as ideal. These women were influenced by reproductive patterns of Mongolia. New life in Kazakhstan did not influence their habits and reproductive behaviour. The second generation of migrants grew up in Kazakhstan and now starts to accept the norms of the Kazakh society. It proves the fact that the young generation is changing its reproductive behaviour today.

Figure 12 – Respondents by ideal number of children and selected age groups, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for 17–19 years p=0.076, for 25–29 years p=0.248, for 35–40 years p=0.202, for 55–60 years p=0.339

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Ideal number of 2 children:

In Kazakhstan at the age groups: 17–19 years (13 %), 25–29 years (7 %), 35–40 years (3 %), 55–60 years (1 %);

In Mongolia at the age groups: 17–19 years (3 %), 25–29 years (5 %), 35–40 years (0 %), 55–60 years (3 %);

Notes (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:

In Kazakhstan at the age groups: 17–19 years (7 %), 25–29 years (17 %), 35–40 years (5 %), 55–60 years (6 %);

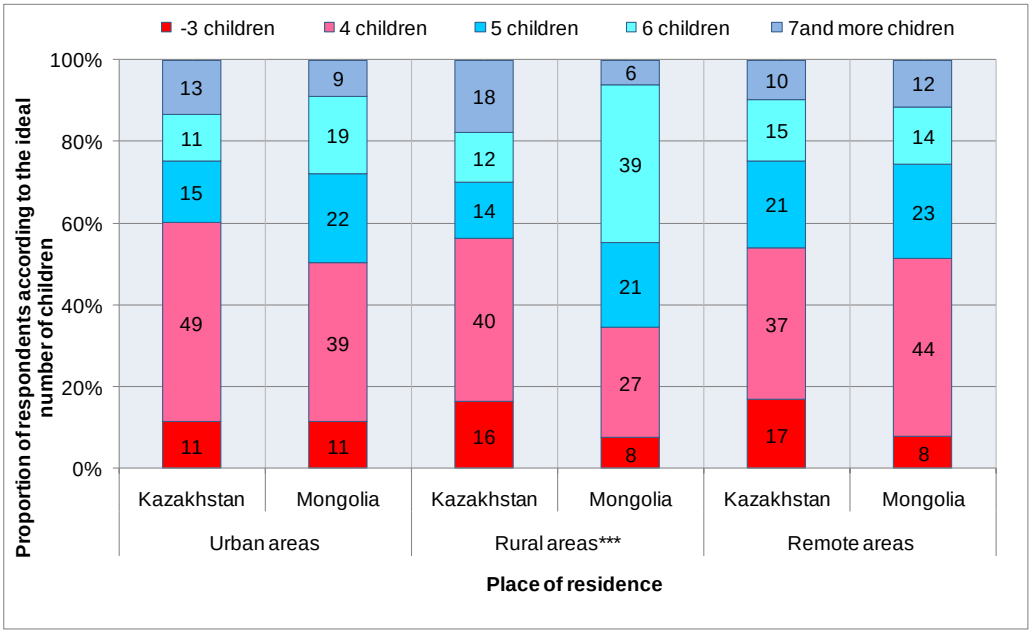
In Mongolia at the age groups: 17–19 years (9 %), 25–29 years (10 %), 35–40 years (9 %), 55–60 years (1 %);

Source: Own survey data

8.4.2 Ideal number of children according to the place of residence

The analysis of the association between the ideal number of children and the place of residence of respondents is represented in Figure 13. Among the respondents of urban areas the proportion of women who think 4 children in the family is ideal is larger in Kazakhstan (49 %) than in Mongolia (39 %). However the opinions of women from rural areas are different, if for repatriates in Kazakhstan the ideal number is four (40 %) then for the Mongolian ethnic Kazakhs it is six children (39 %). As for those who live in remote areas, 37 % of women in Kazakhstan and 44 % of women in Mongolia think four children is ideal. The number of respondents who consider that the ideal number of children is over five to seven is similar for both countries (10 %, 15 %). Differences among the distributions of women according to the ideal number of children within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only for rural areas. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance.

Figure 13 – Respondents by ideal number of children and place of residence, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.231, for rural areas p<0.0005, for remote areas p=0.455
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Ideal number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: urban areas (1 %), rural areas (5 %), remote areas (6 %);
In Mongolia: urban areas (4 %), rural areas (0 %), remote areas (1 %);
Notes (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: urban areas (10 %), rural areas (11 %), remote areas (11 %);
In Mongolia: urban areas (7 %), rural areas (8 %), remote areas (7 %);
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The ideal number of children in the families of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs by the place of residence is different. For women from urban areas four children is ideal. But women in rural areas in Mongolia see six children as ideal. Reproductive behaviour of female repatriates in Kazakhstan is changing gradually which proves that repatriates begin to accept reproductive behaviour of local women and Kazakh society as a whole.

8.4.3 Ideal number of children according to educational level

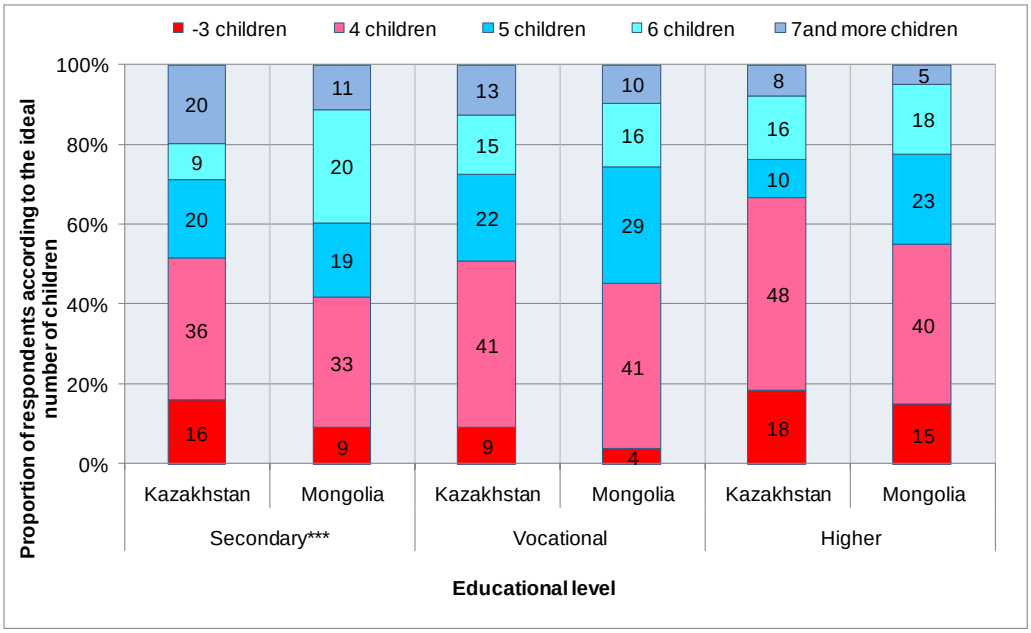
Figure 14 shows the influence of education on the ideal number of children. Among the respondents with secondary education the number of those who think 4 children in the family is ideal is higher in Kazakhstan (36 %) than in Mongolia (23 %). Next group consists of women for whom the ideal number of children is above five and seven and more children, it is the same for repatriates (20 %). When considering respondents with vocational education, the opinions are mostly the same for both countries, there is also dominating number of women for whom the ideal number is four children (41 %) for both countries, but in other cases there is a maximum 7 % difference between them. Among the respondents with higher education dominated the number of women who think 4 children in the family is ideal; however the proportion of women in Mongolia (40 %) is lower than in Kazakhstan (48 %). The proportion of women who consider large families to be ideal is larger among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia compared with repatriates in Kazakhstan. Differences among the distributions of

women according to the ideal number of children within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only for women with secondary education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance.

Conclusion

The ideal number of children shows the approved norms in each society. During the research, the following hypothesis was proved. The more educated a woman is, the fewer children she has. Women from Mongolia with secondary education have fewer children than Kazakh women. It might be connected with the fact that these women are not affected by the norms of the Kazakh society, that they still want to have large families and are less successful than women with higher education. They might think that having more children will help them to get access to governmental programs and grants. Uneducated women usually live in barracks and have seasonal jobs. Some of them were involved in the governmental program of roads development. In Mongolia child benefits have been cancelled recently and this fact influences the attitudes of ethnic Kazakhs.

Figure 14 – Respondents by ideal number of children and attained level of education, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.001, for vocational p=0.696, for higher p=0.141
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Ideal number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: secondary education (4 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (8 %);
In Mongolia: secondary education (1 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (6 %);
Notes (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: secondary education (10 %), vocational education (9 %), higher education (10 %);
In Mongolia: secondary education (8 %), vocational education (4 %), higher education (10 %);

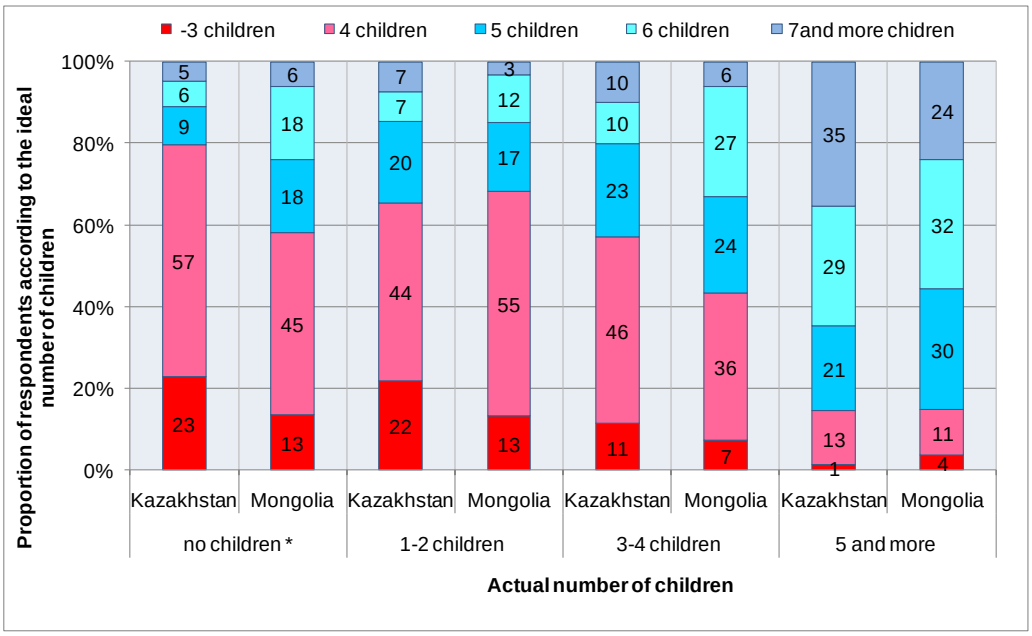
Source: Own survey data

8.4.4 Ideal number of children according to children ever born

Association between the ideal number of children and the actual number of children is represented in Figure 15. Among the childless women 57 % in Kazakhstan and 45 % in Mongolia consider four children to be ideal and as mentioned above this group included single

respondents at the age of 17–19 years (100 %) and 25–29 years which is composed of 41 % of repatriates and 24 % of ethnic Kazakhs (see Appendix 5). However, the proportion of women who think that five, six and seven or more children is ideal is larger in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan. The proportion of respondents who already have one or two children and consider four children to be ideal is larger in Mongolia (55 %) compared with Kazakhstan (44 %), but the proportion of women whose ideals are focused on three and five children is larger among the repatriates (22 % and 20 %) than ethnic Kazakhs (13 % and 17 % respectively). When considering it among the respondents who already have three and four children the proportion of those who think that five children is an ideal number is approximately the same for both countries (23 % in Kazakhstan and 24 % in Mongolia). Among the women with five and more children the proportion of women who consider seven and more children to be ideal is larger in Kazakhstan (35 %) in comparison with Mongolia (24 %). Differences among the distributions of women according to the ideal number of children within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only in the case of childless women and in other cases they are insignificant.

Figure 15 – Respondents by ideal and number of children ever born, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.019, for 1–2 children p=0.471, for 3–4 children p=0.080, for 5 and more children p=0.477

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Ideal number of 2 children:

In Kazakhstan: no children (11 %), 1–2 children (7 %), 3–4 children (1 %), 5 and more children (0 %);

In Mongolia: no children (6 %), 1–2 children (2 %), 3–4 children (0 %), 5 and more children (4 %);

Notes (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:

In Kazakhstan: no children (12 %), 1–2 children (15 %), 3–4 children (10 %), 5 and more children (1 %);

In Mongolia: no children (7 %), 1–2 children (11 %), 3–4 children (7 %), 5 and more children (0 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The analysis showed the difference in the opinions of childless women and those women who have three/four children. Generally, both groups of women agree to have four children as ideal,

however some of them consider even more children. Repatriates in Kazakhstan consider four children to be ideal while ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia consider 5 and more children. Reproductive behaviour of repatriates is changing gradually. They follow the patterns of local people. Those women who have five and more children belong to the third age group of 35–40 years olds. They started their reproductive lives in Mongolia and continue in Kazakhstan that is why seven children is ideal for them. Even in Kazakhstan they are influenced by the examples of their mothers who had many children and came from the families of cattle-breeders. The ideals of the Kazakh society were different 20 years ago. It was normal to have very large families at that time.

8.4.5 Ideal number of children according to marital status

The analysis of the association between the ideal number of children and marital status of respondents is presented in Table 25. When considering it among the single respondents, the number of respondents who think four children in the family is ideal is higher in Kazakhstan (56 %) than in Mongolia (39 %). About 24 % of repatriates in Kazakhstan and 10 % of ethnic Kazakhs see three children as an ideal number. The number of respondents who consider five (16 %), six (23 %) and seven and more (13 %) children to be ideal is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia in comparison with repatriates (9 %, 7 %, and 4 % respectively). As for married women, the number of women who consider four children as an ideal is higher among the respondents in Kazakhstan (36 %) than in Mongolia (31 %). The number of women who think that five children is ideal, is approximately the same in both countries (22 % and 24 % respectively). Ideal number of six (23 %) and seven and more children (18 %) is higher in Mongolia in comparison with Kazakhstan (14 % and 13 %). When considering the opinions of women who live without partners, a higher number of women who consider four children as an ideal can be found in Kazakhstan (80 %) and in Mongolia (35 %). If for repatriates in Kazakhstan the ideal number is six and seven (7 %), then for Mongolian ethnic Kazakhs it is five and six (17 %) and seven and more children (26 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the ideal number of children within marital status are statistically significant only in the case of single women at the level of 1 %. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Despite the marital status, all women consider four children to be ideal. However, single respondents from Kazakhstan started to think about having three children only. The opinions of women who live without partners differ from each other and the ideals of Kazakh and Mongolian society are different.

Table 25 – Respondents by ideal number of children and marital status, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Country	Ideal number of children					Total
		-3	4	5	6	7+	
Single women**	KZ	24	56	9	7	4	100
	MG	10	39	16	23	13	100
Married women	KZ	13	36	24	14	13	100
	MG	7	31	22	23	18	100
Women without partners	KZ	7	80	0	7	7	100
	MG	4	35	17	17	26	100

Notes: Student test for single women p=0.004, for married women p=0.461, for women without partners p=0.108
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Ideal number of 2 children:
In Kazakhstan: single women (13 %), married women (3 %), women without partners (7 %);
In Mongolia: single women (0 %), married women (2 %), women without partners (0 %);
Notes (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:
In Kazakhstan: single women (11 %), married women (10 %), women without partners (0 %);
In Mongolia: single women (10 %), married women (5 %), women without partners (4 %);
Source: Own survey data

8.4.6 Ideal number of children according to the age group and place of residence

The analysis of the association between the ideal number of children by the age group and the place of residence can be seen in Table 26. When considering the opinions of women at the age group of 25–29 years, a higher number of women think that four children is ideal in Kazakhstan (in urban areas–63 %, in rural areas–61 %, in remote areas–54 %) than in Mongolia (32 %, 18 % and 43 % respectively). The number of women who consider three children to be ideal is higher in Kazakhstan (14 %, 17 % and 29 %) in comparison with Mongolia (6 % and 10 %). Six (in urban–29 %, in rural–32 % and in remote areas–14 %) and seven children (18 % , 24 % and 27 %) prevail among the ethnic Kazakhs in comparison with repatriates. As for women at the age group of 35–40 years, despite the place of residence, respondents of this age group consider four to be an ideal number of children. The number of people who share this opinion is higher among the repatriates (in urban areas–48 %, in rural areas–46 %, in remote areas–47 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (31 %, 33 % and 32 % respectively). Approximately the same number of women from urban (21 %) and remote areas (20 %) in Kazakhstan consider five children to be ideal, in Mongolia this opinion prevails among rural population (33 %). However, the number of women who consider six and seven children to be ideal is high among ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. More than a quarter of repatriates consider three children to be ideal despite of the place of residence. Among the women at the age group of 55–60 years, women who see four children to be ideal prevail. Their number is higher in Kazakhstan (in urban areas–40 %, in rural areas–38 %, in remote areas–32 %) than in Mongolia (36 %, 6 % and 26 %). The number of women who consider it ideal to have five children is the same and higher among ethnic Kazakhs from urban and rural areas (38 % and 39 %) except for women from remote areas in Kazakhstan (25 %). If among urban areas in Kazakhstan prevails the number of women who think that the ideal number of children is six (20 %) and seven (25

%), then in Mongolia the same opinions are shared by the women from rural (25 %) and remote areas (26 %).

Table 26 – Respondents by ideal number of children, selected age groups, and place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Place	Country	Ideal number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
25–29	Urban* areas	KZ	14	63	7	15	0	100
		MG	6	32	16	29	18	100
	Rural areas**	KZ	17	61	10	6	6	100
		MG	10	18	14	32	27	100
	Remote areas*	KZ	29	54	7	7	4	100
		MG	0	43	19	14	24	100
35–40	Urban areas	KZ	21	48	21	7	3	100
		MG	10	31	15	25	19	100
	Rural areas	KZ	25	46	14	4	11	100
		MG	7	33	33	13	13	100
	Remote areas	KZ	27	47	20	3	3	100
		MG	4	32	25	21	18	100
55–60	Urban areas	KZ	0	40	15	20	25	100
		MG	3	36	39	18	3	100
	Rural areas	KZ	14	38	21	14	10	100
		MG	13	6	38	19	25	100
	Remote areas	KZ	4	32	25	21	18	100
		MG	5	26	16	26	26	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.027, 35–40 years p=0.060, 55–60 years p=0.077

Student test for rural areas at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.011, 35–40 years p=0.365, 55–60 years p=0.212;
Student test for remote areas at the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.031, 35–40 years p=0.228, 55–60 years p=0.665;
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Note (i): Ideal number of 2 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (11 %), rural areas (10 %), and remote areas (18 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (5 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (4 %), rural areas (7 %), and remote areas (10 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (4 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (3 %), and remote areas (4 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);

Note (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (4 %), rural areas (7 %), and remote areas (11 %);
For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (5 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (17 %), rural areas (18 %), and remote areas (17 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (10 %), rural areas (7 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (14 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (13 %), and remote areas (5 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the ideal number of children within the age groups and the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for the age group of 25–29 years old respondents in urban and remote areas and at the level of 1 % in rural areas. In other cases they have been found insignificant. It is known that the ideal number of children is considered to be ideal in the society where respondents live. It means that among the 25–29 years old women the ideal number of children in rural areas of Kazakhstan is four while Mongolian women mention six/seven children to be ideal for them. However, there are women among the repatriates who consider two children to be ideal. The following hypothesis was proven: reproductive behaviour of young repatriates will be different from the behaviour of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Repatriates are influenced by the new society they live in. Repatriates from this age group were brought up and grew up in the new environment. However, women who would like to have just one child were not found among the repatriates.

8.4.7 Ideal number of children according to the age group and educational level

The analysis of the association between the ideal number of children by the age group and educational levels of mothers can be seen in Table 27. The higher number of women who consider four children as an ideal number at the age group of 25–29 years can be observed among the repatriates in Kazakhstan (secondary–65 %, vocational–62 %, higher–56 %) than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (38 %, 17 % and 29 % respectively). A quarter of repatriates with secondary and higher education think that three children is the ideal number. There are 17 % of women with secondary education who think that having five children is ideal while 29 % consider six children and 13 % seven and more children to be ideal. These numbers are higher in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan (9 % and 4 % respectively). The number of women who think of having five (secondary–17 %, vocational–33 % and higher–11 %) and six children (secondary and higher–29 %, vocational–33 %) is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan. If taking into account the opinions of women at the age group of 35–40 years who would like to have four children ideally, such an opinion prevails among the repatriates with vocational (42 %) and higher education (54 %); for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia 26 % and 13 % respectively, except for women with secondary education in Mongolia (52 %). 23 % of women with vocational and higher education consider three children to be ideal. 23 % of women with secondary and vocational and 27 % with higher education see three children to be ideal. The same number is observed among the women with secondary education (19 % and 20 %) with the same ideals of five children in both countries. It is higher among the repatriates with higher education (23 %). Despite the educational level, higher number of women in Mongolia consider six children to be ideal (secondary–15 %, vocational–22 %, higher–31 %) in comparison with repatriates (6 % and 4 %). In Mongolia 26 % of women with vocational and 38 % of women with higher education consider having seven children in the future. As for women at the age group of 55–60 years, approximately the same number of women with secondary and vocational education consider four children to be ideal in Kazakhstan (38 % and 39 %). About 33 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 22 % of repatriates with higher education would

prefer three and four children. The number of women who think that five children would be ideal is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (secondary–38 %, vocational–62 %, higher–56 %) in comparison with repatriates from Kazakhstan. Higher number of women who consider four children as an ideal can be found among the repatriates (secondary–27 %, vocational–62 %, higher–56 %) than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (38 %, 17 % and 29 % respectively). In Kazakhstan 22 % of university educated women consider six and seven children as ideal, in Mongolia 27 % of ethnic Kazakhs with secondary education see having six children as ideal (27 %).

Table 27 – Respondents by ideal number of children, selected age groups, and attained level of education, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Age group	Education	Country	Ideal number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
25–29	Secondary*	KZ	22	65	9	0	4	100
		MG	4	38	17	29	13	100
	Vocational	KZ	16	62	4	19	0	100
		MG	0	17	33	33	17	100
	Higher	KZ	20	56	11	8	6	100
		MG	6	29	11	29	26	100
35–40	Secondary*	KZ	23	46	20	6	6	100
		MG	10	52	19	15	4	100
	Vocational*	KZ	23	54	12	4	8	100
		MG	7	26	19	22	26	100
	Higher	KZ	27	42	23	4	4	100
		MG	13	13	6	31	38	100
55–60	Secondary**	KZ	8	38	24	16	14	100
		MG	9	21	27	27	18	100
	Vocational**	KZ	3	39	20	19	19	100
		MG	7	29	36	21	7	100
	Higher	KZ	22	22	11	22	22	100
		MG	0	33	39	11	17	100

Notes: Student test for the age group of 25–29 years: secondary education p=0.022, vocational education p=0.524, higher education p=0.534; Student test for the age group of 35–40 years: secondary education p=0.034, vocational education p=0.043, higher education p=0.625; Student test for the age group of 55–60 years: secondary education p=0.009, vocational education p=0.003, higher education p=0.268

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Notes (i): Ideal number of 2 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (9 %), vocational education (12 %), higher education (14 %);

For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (0 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (3 %);

For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (9 %), vocational education (4 %), higher education (8 %);

For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (2 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (0 %);

For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (3 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (11 %);

For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (0 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (0 %);

Notes (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:

For 25–29 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (13 %), vocational education (4 %), higher education (6 %);

For 25–29 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (4 %), vocational education (0 %), higher education (3 %);

For 35–40 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (14 %), vocational education (19 %), higher education (19 %);
For 35–40 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (8 %), vocational education (7 %), higher education (13 %);
For 55–60 years old in Kazakhstan: secondary education (5 %), vocational education (3 %), higher education (11 %);
For 55–60 years old in Mongolia: secondary education (9 %), vocational education (7 %), higher education (0 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the ideal number of children within the age groups and the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 5 % for the age group of 25–29 years old respondents with secondary education and for the age group of 35–40 years old respondents with secondary and vocational education, at the level of 1 % for the age group of 55–60 years old respondents with all education categories. Regardless of the place of residence, the age group and educational level, the ideal number of children is four. This number is higher among the repatriates. Five, six and seven children as an ideal is typical for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs is different. However, the hypothesis that age and educational levels influence reproductive behaviour of respondents was not proven. They are not statistically significant although fewer children are seen to be ideal by repatriates.

8.4.8 Ideal number of children according to marital status and place of residence

The analysis of the association between the ideal number of children by marital status and the place of residence can be seen in Table 28. If taking into account the opinions of single women, there is a higher number of women who consider four children to be ideal in urban areas (60 %) and rural areas (59 %) in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia (31 % and 33 %), except for women from remote areas (56 % in Mongolia, 49 % in Kazakhstan). About 33 % of ethnic Kazakh single women from rural and 31 % from urban areas see six children as ideal, 22 % of women from remote areas and 17 % from rural areas consider five and seven children to be ideal, and 19 % of women from urban areas think about having three children ideally. In Kazakhstan the higher number of single women from remote areas (25 %) and approximately the same from urban (17 %) and rural (20 %) areas would like to have three children ideally. As for married women, the proportion of women who consider four children to be ideal is larger among the repatriates from urban (41 %) and rural (32 %) areas than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (33 % and 18 %), except for women from remote areas which is approximately the same in both countries (36 % and 38 %). Among the married repatriates from urban (12 %) and rural (21 %) areas the ideal number of children is three. Married women from urban areas consider five children to be ideal (23 % from urban and 28 % from rural areas) and six children (23 % from urban and rural areas, 21 % from remote areas). Their number is higher in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan, except for women from remote areas who would like to have five children ideally (31 %). The number of women who see seven children to be ideal is higher in Mongolia (in urban–16 %, in rural–20 %, and remote area– 19 %) in comparison with repatriates (14 % , 11 % and 13 % respectively). If we take into account women who live without partners, then 100 % of repatriates from urban areas consider four children to be ideal and 25 % of women from urban areas in Mongolia think of having three, four, five and six children ideally. Among the

repatriates from rural areas 80 % of women see four children to be ideal and 20 % of them seven children. 43 % of ethnic Kazakhs would like to have seven children and 29 % of them five children. Among the population from remote areas 67 % of repatriates would like to have four children ideally and 17 % of them three and six children. About 50 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia have ideals of having four children, 25 % of them seven and 17 % six children.

Table 28 – Respondents by ideal number of children, marital status, and place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Marital status	Place	Country	Ideal number of children					Total
			-3	4	5	6	7+	
Single women	Urban areas	KZ	17	60	10	13	0	100
		MG	19	31	13	31	6	100
	Rural areas	KZ	20	59	11	4	7	100
		MG	0	33	17	33	17	100
	Remote areas	KZ	25	49	7	5	5	100
		MG	0	56	22	0	22	100
Married women	Urban areas	KZ	12	41	19	14	14	100
		MG	4	33	23	23	16	100
	Rural areas	KZ	21	32	22	14	11	100
		MG	13	18	28	23	20	100
	Remote areas	KZ	5	36	31	15	13	100
		MG	8	38	15	21	19	100
Women without partners	Urban areas	KZ	0	100	0	0	0	100
		MG	25	25	25	25	0	100
	Rural areas	KZ	0	80	0	0	20	100
		MG	0	14	29	15	43	100
	Remote areas	KZ	17	67	0	17	0	100
		MG	0	50	8	17	25	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas: single women p=0.137, married women p=0.445, women without partners p=0.187; Student test for rural areas: single women p=0.133 married women p=0.430, women without partners p=0.131; Student test for remote areas: single women p=0.157, married women p=0.511, women without partners p=0.380

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Note (i): Ideal number of 2 children:

For single respondents in Kazakhstan: urban areas (10 %), rural areas (9 %), and remote areas (20 %);
For single respondents in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Kazakhstan: urban areas (2 %), rural areas (5 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Mongolia: urban areas (1 %), rural areas (3 %), and remote areas (2 %);
For women without partners in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (17 %);
For women without partners in Mongolia: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);

Note (ii): Ideal number of 3 children:

For single respondents in Kazakhstan: urban areas (7 %), rural areas (11 %), and remote areas (15 %);
For single respondents in Mongolia: urban areas (19 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For married women in Kazakhstan: urban areas (10 %), rural areas (16 %), and remote areas (5 %);
For married women in Mongolia: urban areas (3 %), rural areas (10 %), and remote areas (6 %);
For women without partners in Kazakhstan: urban areas (0 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);
For women without partners in Mongolia: urban areas (25 %), rural areas (0 %), and remote areas (0 %);

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the ideal number of children within the marital status are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance in all cases. Despite the marital status, the ideal number of children is generally four. However, single female repatriates and women who live without their partners in Kazakhstan think that having two children is ideal. In Mongolia there are women among the single ethnic Kazakhs who consider five to six children to be ideal. The opinions of women who live without partners is different in both countries. However, despite the different reproductive behaviour, the influence of marital status, the place of residence and society is statistically insignificant. As it was revealed by the analysis, there are women in the Kazakh society who would like to have two or three children ideally. In Mongolia the ideal family is a large family. However, the transition from large to smaller families was not observed in both countries yet.

8.5 Average number of children

8.5.1 Average number of children according to the age group

Analysis of the average number of children according to age group of mothers is shown in Table 29. Comparison results of sample's mean value show that both samples depend on the normal distribution. The average number of children of ethnic Kazakhs in the age groups of 35–40 years and 55–60 years is higher than of repatriates in Kazakhstan (3.7 and 5.8 children in comparison with 3.3 and 4.7 children respectively). However the mean number of women's children in the age group of 25–29 years is the same for both countries and equals to 0.9 children. Differences among the distribution of women according to the average number of children within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only in the case of the age group of 55–60 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Dispersion of the actual number of children of women by the age group between the average number of children within the total average number of children with ANOVA method is statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %.

Conclusion

Considerable difference in the average number of children among the 25–29 years old women is connected with their education, personal socialization and the postponement of childbearing. The lack of male partners can also be the reason. The changes in reproductive behaviour of this group are not observed because the analysis of the desired (see Figure 8), planned (see Figure 4) and ideal (see Figure 12) number of children show that they are planning to have four children. If we consider marital status of 25–29 years old women, 41 % of repatriates and 24 % of ethnic Kazakhs are single (see Table 10). 55–60 years old women belong to the selective group of repatriates who came from Mongolia. They moved to Kazakhstan with their children which proves the concept of selectivity. The average number of children at the age of 35–40 years is higher, in spite of the fact that they started their reproductive life in Kazakhstan. Such factors as living together and the influence of older generations can explain this phenomenon.

Table 29 – Average number of children by selected age groups of females, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009

Age group	Average number of children		Standard deviation	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
25–29	0.9	0.9	1.10	1.01
35–40	3.7	3.3	1.44	1.49
55–60***	5.8	4.6	1.87	2.29
Total***	2.5	2.4	2.59	2.34

Notes: Student test for 25–29 years p=0.221, for 35–40 years p=0.073, for 55–60 years p=0.001
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Statistically significant with ANOVA F-test <0.0005
Source: Own survey data

8.5.2 Average number of children according to the place of residence

It is necessary to look at the analysis of repatriates' and ethnic Kazakhs' average number of children according to the place of residence in order to determine the speed of the changes in the average number of respondents' children (see Table 30). The analysis showed that the average number of children is the same for urban as well as remote areas which is 2.6. In Mongolia the average number of children is 2.4 for urban while it is 2.8 for remote areas. Surprisingly the average number of children for respondents from rural areas is lower than that of urban and remote areas in Mongolia as well as in Kazakhstan, which is 2.3 and 2.2 respectively. Differences among the distribution of women according to the average numbers of children within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance for all cases. Dispersion of the actual number of children of women according to the given categories of the place of residence between average number of children within the total average number of children with ANOVA method is statistically insignificant.

Table 30 – Average number of children by place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009

Place	Average number of children		Standard deviation	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Urban areas	2.6	2.4	2.63	2.38
Rural areas	2.3	2.2	2.61	2.17
Remote areas	2.6	2.8	2.54	2.40
Total***	2.6	2.4	2.59	2.33

Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.472, for rural areas p=0.882, for remote areas p=0.567
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Notes (i): Statistically significant with ANOVA F-test =0.283
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The analysis of the average number of children of repatriates according to the place of residence showed that this number is higher for urban areas in Kazakhstan. However, the average number of children of those who live in barracks is lower than of those who live in bags in Mongolia. The living conditions of barracks and bags cannot be compared (see Appendices 28, 30). There are no appropriate conditions for having children in barracks (no water, wells, sick children). Barracks are usually occupied by invalids, unemployed people. This is the second group of repatriates who could not adapt in Kazakhstan. However, such dreadful conditions did not change reproductive behaviour of repatriates towards the planned (see Figure 5), desired (see Figure 9) and ideal number of children (see Figure 13).

8.5.3 Average number of children according to educational level

The analysis of the average number of children according to educational level of mothers is given in Table 31. The average number of children among women who have secondary education is higher in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan which is 3.4 and 2.9 respectively. However among the respondents with vocational education it is higher in Kazakhstan which is 3.0 children than in Mongolia with 2.8 children. Women with higher education have the same average number of children in both countries which are 1.6 children. This evidence supports the statement that mothers with higher education have smaller number of children.

Table 31 – Average number of children by attained level of education, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009

Education	Average number of children		Standard deviation	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Secondary	2.8	3.3	2.67	2.36
Vocational	3.0	2.8	2.43	1.91
Higher	1.6	1.6	2.37	2. 05
Total***	2.5	2.7	2.59	2.30

Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.132, for vocational education p=0.575, for higher education p=0.970
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Statistically significant with ANOVA F-test <0.0005
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distribution of women according to the average number of children within the given educational categories are statistically insignificant even on 5% level of significance for all cases. Dispersion of the actual number of children of women according to the given educational categories between average number of children within the total average number of children with ANOVA method is statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %. The analysis of the average number of children according to educational level of mothers proved the

hypothesis that education has an impact on fertility. The more educated a woman is, the fewer children she has.

8.5.4 Average number of children according to the age group and place of residence

The analysis of the average number of children according to the age group of mothers and the place of residence is shown in Table 32. The average number of children among the repatriates at the age groups of 25–29 years is higher in urban areas in Kazakhstan (1.3) than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (0.9). The average number of children is approximately the same for rural and remote areas in Mongolia which is 1.2 and 1.3 children. If comparing the average number of children at the age group of 35–40 years it can be seen that there is a higher and same number among the repatriates from urban (4.0) and remote areas in Kazakhstan than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (3.1 and 3.5 respectively), except for ethnic Kazakhs from rural areas in Mongolia (3.6). The average number of children of respondents at the age group of 50–60 years is higher among the repatriates (6.3 for urban areas, 5.8 for rural areas and 5.5 for remote areas) than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (4.8 for urban and remote areas, 4.2 for rural areas).

Table 32 – Average number of children by selected place of residence and age groups, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009

Place	Average number of children					
	25–29		35–40		55–60	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Urban areas	1.3	0.9	4.0	3.1	6.3	4.8
Rural areas	0.5	1.2	3.2	3.5	5.8	4.2
Remote areas	1.0	1.3	4.0	3.5	5.5	4.8
Total***	0.9	0.9	3.7	3.3	5.8	4.6

Notes: Statistically significant with ANOVA F-test <0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Dispersion of the actual number of children of women according to the age groups and given categories of the place of residence between average number of children within the total average number of children with ANOVA method is statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %. The analysis shows that average number is higher for all age groups of repatriates from urban areas in comparison with Mongolia. However, when considering the oldest age group of 50–60 years, it can be observed that the average number of children in these families is higher in urban areas than in rural or remote areas. Among the women at the age group of 35–40 years old, the average number of children is the same and higher for rural and remote areas in

Mongolia. For Kazakhstan the same applies for urban and remote areas. If we consider women at the age group of 25–29 years, the average number of children is higher in urban families in Kazakhstan. In Mongolia the reverse situation is observed: the higher average number of children is typical for rural and remote areas. The analysis did not prove the hypothesis that respondents with fewer children live in urban areas and respondents with more children live in rural areas. It was interesting to find out that there are more respondents with large families in urban than in rural areas.

8.5.5 Average number of children according to educational level and place of residence

The analysis of the average number of children according to educational level of respondents and the place of residence is shown in Table 33. The average number of children among the respondents with secondary education is higher in Mongolia (3.8 in urban and remote areas) than in Kazakhstan (4.1 and 3.8 children respectively). Among the respondents with secondary education from rural areas the average number of children is higher in Kazakhstan (4.1) than in Mongolia (3.5). The average number of children among the women with vocational education from urban areas is the same in both countries (3.4). For rural (3.3) and remote (2.8) areas the average number is higher in Kazakhstan in comparison with Mongolia (2.7 and 2.5 children respectively). The average number of children among the women with higher education is higher in urban (3.9) and remote areas (3.1) in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia (2.1 and 1.9 respectively). However, for rural areas the average number is higher in Mongolia (2.5) in comparison with Kazakhstan (1.7).

Table 33 –Average number of children by attained level of education and place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009

Education	Average number of children					
	Urban areas		Rural areas		Remote areas	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Secondary	4.1	3.8	4.1	3.5	3.8	3.8
Vocational	3.4	3.4	3.3	2.7	2.8	2.5
Higher	3.9	2.1	1.7	2.5	3.1	1.9
Total***	3.6	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.4	3.0

Notes: Statistically significant with ANOVA F-test <0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Dispersion of the actual number of children of women according to the given categories of education and the place of residence between average number of children within the total average number of children with ANOVA method is statistically significant at the level of 0.1

%. The analysis of the average number of children according to the educational level of mothers and the place of residence proved the hypothesis that there is an educational impact on fertility. The more educated a woman is, the fewer children she has. However, higher educated repatriates with higher average number of children live in urban and remote areas in Kazakhstan. It is interesting to find out that in Mongolia women with university degrees living in rural areas have higher average number of children. Among the women with vocational education the average number of children is higher in rural and remote areas in Kazakhstan, except for women from urban areas in Mongolia. Women with secondary education have a higher average number of children in comparison with women with vocational and higher education in both countries. Despite the place of residence the fertility behaviour of women with secondary education is the same in both countries.

8.5.6 Average number of children according to educational level and the age group

The analysis of the average number of children according to the educational level and the age group of respondents is shown in Table 34. The average number of children among the repatriates at the age group of 25–29 years is higher among the women with secondary education in Mongolia (1.9) than among the repatriates (1.6). For women with vocational (0.9) and higher (0.5) education the average number of children is higher in Kazakhstan in comparison with Mongolia (0.8 and 0.6). When comparing the average number of children at the age group of 35–40 years olds it can be seen that higher numbers are observed among the women with higher (4.2), secondary (3.9) and vocational (3.2) education in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia (3.2 for higher, 3.5 for secondary and 2.9 for vocational education). If taking into account the average number of children of respondents at the age groups of 55–60 years we can observe that among the women with secondary education the average number of children is higher in Kazakhstan (4.1) than in Mongolia (3.8). The average number of children of respondents with vocational (3.2) and higher (2.5) education is higher among the repatriates than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (3.0 for vocational and 2.1 for higher education).

Table 34 – Average number of children by attained level of education and selected age groups, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009

Education	Average number of children							
	25–29		35–40		55–60		Total***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Secondary	1.6	1.9	3.8	3.5	6.1	5.0	4.1	3.8
Vocational	0.9	0.8	3.2	2.9	5.4	4.1	3.2	3.0
Higher	0.5	0.6	4.2	3.2	6.1	4.4	2.5	2.1

Notes: Statistically significant with ANOVA F-test <0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Dispersion of the actual number of children of women according to the the age groups and given educational categories between average number of children within the total average number of children with ANOVA method is statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %. Reproductive behaviour of repatriates at the age group of 25–29 years started to change from that of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Despite the educational level, the average number of children of 25–29 years old respondents is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. It proves that the behaviour of repatriates from Kazakhstan differs from that of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. They started to postpone giving birth to children. The average number of children for 35–40 years old respondents is higher among the repatriates with higher education in comparison with others; women with secondary education have more children in Mongolia. Regardless of the place of residence, the behaviour of women with vocational education is the same. Regardless of the educational level, the repatriates from the older age group have more children than ethnic Kazakhs of the same age in Mongolia.

9 Family's living standards and its influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia

9.1 Financial situation

In order to compare the effect of a family's living standard as a factor influencing reproductive intentions of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia, it is necessary to consider depending factors such as the actual number of respondents' children by age groups, rural and urban places of residence and educational level of respondents. In this chapter we will try to confirm the following research hypothesis: reproductive intentions of repatriates will depend on the impact of these new living conditions (financial well-being, living environment, etc.). The next hypothesis assumes that socio-economic changes of the new environment will have stimulating effect on the fertility of the returnees.

9.1.1 Financial situation according to the age groups

The opinions of women regarding the financial situation of their families according to the age group are presented in Table 35. Among the 17–19 years old repatriates, those who can afford almost everything for everyday life prevail at the level of 29 %. Those who have to borrow in order to buy more expensive items constitute 25 % and those who have enough for everyday living except for clothes comprise 20 % in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs from the same age group at the levels of 19 %, 27 % and 12 % respectively, except for those who stated that they do not have enough money and borrow permanently (14 %). The situation in the age group of 25–29 years is almost the same as in the group mentioned earlier (24 % in Kazakhstan, and 17 % and 23 % in Mongolia, except for those who think that they can afford almost everything for daily life–35 %). 14 % of the 25–29 years old repatriates have difficulties with being able to afford buying clothes (14 %). About 11 % of repatriates have to borrow constantly. The same statistics for ethnic Kazakhs which is 7 % and 5 % respectively. When considering the opinions of 35–40 years old women, it can be seen that 31 % of repatriates and 27 % of ethnic Kazakhs reported themselves as self-sufficient. The proportion of respondents who have to borrow constantly is higher in Mongolia (21 %) than in Kazakhstan (29 %). Among the 55–60 years old people the proportion of those who consider themselves as self-sufficient is larger among the

ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (33 %) than among the repatriates in Kazakhstan (27 %). 17 % of repatriates and 9 % of ethnic Kazakhs from Mongolia have problems when buying clothes. The lack of financial resources is experienced by 21 % of repatriates in Kazakhstan and 5 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia.

Table 35 – Financial situation of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)

	Age group							
	17–19		25–29		35–40		55–60**	
Financial situation	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
People who are well-off	18	23	20	17	13	19	17	25
People who have enough to satisfy the needs prevails	29	19	24	35	31	27	27	33
People who have enough to afford the basics, but in order to buy more expensive goods they have to borrow	25	27	24	23	15	10	12	23
People who have enough for everyday living, but have to borrow in order to buy clothes	20	12	14	7	7	8	17	9
People who have to borrow money for everyday life	5	2	6	13	4	16	5	7
People who do not have enough for everyday living	3	14	11	5	29	21	21	5
Others	0	4	1	0	1	0	1	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for the age groups of 17–19 years p=0.078, for 25–29 years p=0.152, for 35–40 years p=0.094, for 55–60 years p=0.010

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the financial situation within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only in the case of the age group of 55–60 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. The analysis of the financial situation by the age groups of respondents revealed that young people face financial difficulties when buying expensive goods and clothes. It can be explained by the following fact: they do not earn money themselves, their needs are completely different from those of their parents, they do not want to lag behind their peers, fashion trends, etc. People from the older age groups usually do not have enough money and they have to borrow constantly. This can be explained by the large size of their families and spending their entire salaries on supporting family members.

9.1.2 Financial situation according to the place of residence

One of the most important socio-economic parameters that characterize living standard of each family is financial stability. The analysis of the financial situation of a family according to the place of residence is given in Table 36. Among the answers to the question about the financial

situation in the family, the positive attitude of having enough to satisfy the needs prevails. Among the respondents from urban areas there are more ethnic Kazakhs in Bayan-Ulgii aimag in Mongolia (30 %) than in Zhairem in Kazakhstan (more than a quarter of respondents are women, 27 %). When comparing rural areas, it can be noticed that there are more respondents from somons (37 %) than Zhairem (30 %). Among the respondents from remote areas, the majority lives in barracks (26 %) and only 20 % live in bags in Mongolia. It should be noted that the number of people who are well-off is higher in Mongolian bags (23 %). It is similar to the proportion of respondents with the same opinions from urban areas in both countries. The next group consists of people (20 % in both countries) who stated that they have enough to afford the basics but in order to buy more expensive goods they have to borrow. Other opinions are as follows: people who have enough for everyday living but will have to borrow in order to buy clothes and people who do not have enough for everyday living. The proportion of those who have to borrow money for everyday life is higher in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia. About 9–14 % of the population in Mongolia and 3–8 % in Kazakhstan have to spend their whole salaries for the basics of everyday living. However, the influence of the financial situation by the place of residence is statistically insignificant.

Table 36 –Financial situation of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)

	Age group					
	Urban areas		Rural areas		Remote areas*	
Financial situation	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
People who are well-off	21	22	18	16	13	23
People who have enough to satisfy the needs prevails	27	30	30	37	26	20
People who have enough to afford the basics, but in order to buy more expensive goods they have to borrow	19	21	20	20	20	16
People who have enough for everyday living, but have to borrow in order to buy clothes	9	7	15	5	18	11
People who have to borrow money for everyday life	8	9	3	9	3	14
People who do not have enough for everyday living	16	10	13	9	19	17
Others	0	1	1	0	2	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.648, for rural areas p=0.342, for remote areas p=0.026
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the financial situation within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for rural areas and in other cases they are insignificant. The analysis of how the places of residence influence the financial conditions of a family revealed that the opinions of rural and urban people in Kazakhstan are almost the same. However, the majority of respondents are worried about being able to afford expensive goods. Interesting situation was observed in bags where almost half of respondents considered themselves to be able to afford everything. The following

reason can be used to explain such a phenomenon: the majority of the population in bags are cattle-breeders (see Appendices 28 and 29). It is traditional for Kazakhs to think that those who have cattle are the wealthiest people. However, such a reason is an assumption. The real reasons were not revealed during the opinion poll. The style of life of the cattle-breeders and people in cities (see Appendix 24) and somons (see Appendix 27) is very different, that is why the priorities might be different as cattle-breeders live in yurts and lead a nomadic way of life with their herds (see Appendix 28). However, remote areas are inhabited by the people who do not have enough money and have to borrow permanently in comparison with the families from urban and rural areas (see Appendices 21 and 22). It can be explained by the fact that the main activities of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs who live in remote areas are cattle-breeding and seasonal jobs. Moreover, the second generation of repatriates is settled there. These are the people who could not integrate into the new society (see Appendix 21).

9.1.3 Financial situation according to educational level

The connection between financial situation of the family and the level of education of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs is of a special interest for the research (see Table 37). Among the respondents with secondary education 32 % of repatriates and 28 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia can afford anything they need for everyday life. The number of those who need to borrow some money for buying expensive goods is almost similar for both countries–21 % and 22 %. There are repatriate families (15 %) which have difficulties when buying clothes and families (16 %) which have to borrow constantly to support their family members. For ethnic Kazakhs it is 12 % and 13 % respectively. The proportion of women who can afford almost everything they need is larger in Mongolia (35 %) than in Kazakhstan (18 %). More women in Kazakhstan have almost all sufficient financial means for everyday life (25 %) and constantly borrow (24 %). For Mongolia the same statistics is 18 % and 19 % respectively. 25 % of women who graduated from universities replied that they can afford almost everything they like. 19 % and 20 % of women with higher education in both countries have to borrow money when buying expensive items. The proportion of women who consider the financial situation of their family as self-sufficient is larger in Mongolia (40 %) than in Kazakhstan (25 %). Buying clothes is difficult for 20 % of repatriates, 9 % of them experience the lack of financial resources. Only 3 % of ethnic Kazakhs find themselves in a similar situation.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the financial situation within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for women with secondary education and at the level of 0.1 % for women with higher education. The analysis of how the educational level correlates with financial well-being showed that less educated women always experience financial difficulties, constantly borrow money as they do not have enough for daily life. However, being able to afford expensive items is the problem for all the respondents despite their educational level. Women with higher education are satisfied with their financial situation as they have more possibilities to find well-paid jobs. Such women in Mongolia are more self-sufficient than in Kazakhstan.

Table 37 –Financial situation of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)

Financial situation	Educational level					
	Secondary*		Vocational		Higher***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
People who are well-off	10	11	18	35	24	25
People who have enough to satisfy the needs prevails	32	28	25	18	25	40
People who have enough to afford the basics, but in order to buy more expensive goods they have to borrow	21	22	17	12	19	20
People who have enough for everyday living, but will have to borrow in order to buy clothes	15	12	6	9	20	3
People who have to borrow money for everyday life	4	14	10	7	3	7
People who do not have enough for everyday living	16	13	24	19	9	3
Others	2	0	0	0	0	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: Student test for secondary education p=0.037, for vocational education p=0.244, for higher education p=0.001 Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

9.1.4 Financial situation according to children ever born

Table 38 shows the analysis of the association between financial situations of a family with the actual number of children in a family. The proportion of women who can afford everything in a daily life is larger only among the childless women in Kazakhstan (24 %) than in Mongolia (14 %). The situation among the women with one or two children (25 %) and five and more children (27 %) in Mongolia is the opposite. The exception are women with three or four children (11 %) in Mongolia. For Kazakhstan it is only 13 % and 14 %. The proportion of childless women who can afford almost everything necessary for everyday life is higher in Mongolia (54 %) than in Kazakhstan (22 %). It is interesting to note that the problem of buying more expensive goods is more acute in Kazakhstan among the childless women (28 %) than in Mongolia, except for women who have three or four children (20 %). The proportion of childless women who have difficulties with buying clothes is larger in Kazakhstan (16 %) than in Mongolia (7 %), except for women who have five and more children (14 %). The number of women who spend their salaries on everyday items is higher in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan (22 % of women with one or two children, 2 % and 14 % for the rest). Women with one or two children–25 %, three or four children–28 % in Kazakhstan and 7 %–19 % in Mongolia, except for women with many children (32 %) usually experience financial difficulties. Childless families in both countries experience fewer difficulties with satisfying basic needs (2 % and 4 % respectively).

Table 38 – Financial situation of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)

Financial situation	Number of children							
	No children		1–2 children**		3–4 children		5 and more children**	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
People who are well-off	24	14	14	25	14	11	13	27
People who have enough to satisfy the needs prevails	22	54	25	25	22	34	50	5
People who have enough to afford the basics, but in order to buy more expensive goods they have to borrow	33	14	16	13	16	20	13	9
People who have enough for everyday living, but have to borrow in order to buy clothes	16	7	14	8	8	4	0	14
People who have to borrow money for everyday life	2	7	5	22	10	12	0	14
People who do not have enough for everyday living	2	4	25	7	28	19	23	32
Others	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for no children p= 0.066, for 1–2 children p=0.010, for 3–4 children p=0.483, for 5 and more children p=0.002

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The analysis of the financial stability and its influence on the actual number of children showed that families in Kazakhstan are mostly facing financial difficulties despite the fact that the standard of living and well-being in Kazakhstan and Mongolia are not the same. Mongolia is an underdeveloped, poor country in comparison with Kazakhstan. Differences among the distributions of women according to the financial situation within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1% only for women with one or two children and women with five and more children. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance.

9.2 Housing conditions

One of the most important socio-economic characteristic that helps to understand the life of a family is living conditions. They play a significant role in the life of every family. Living conditions determine the needs in children, the demand in the housing market. The income of a family makes the demand solvent. “The issue of housing has been a consistent challenge for

government agencies dealing with the integration of oralmans. As entrance into the quota includes the provision of state funded housing, fiscal and logistical difficulties are considerable, particularly with the increase of quota oralmans. To date, the majority of government allocation for oralman integration has been spent on housing for those included in the quota. Conversely, those not included in the quota receive no assistance in finding temporary or permanent accommodation" (UNDP, 2006).

The influence of the living conditions on fertility will be considered in this chapter of the doctoral thesis. Based on those studies we take groups of returnees who have moved to Kazakhstan from 1991 to 1993, with labor agreements, without quotas, and who have already been living in the region for almost 18 years. This group of returnees is considered as the most important object in comparison and only through them we can find any changes in the behaviour of immigrants. The following hypothesis will be proven: the behaviour of repatriates will depend on the new living conditions (financial stability, housing conditions, etc). The results were considered in relation to fertility, urban and rural areas, age groups and the actual number of children that respondents have.

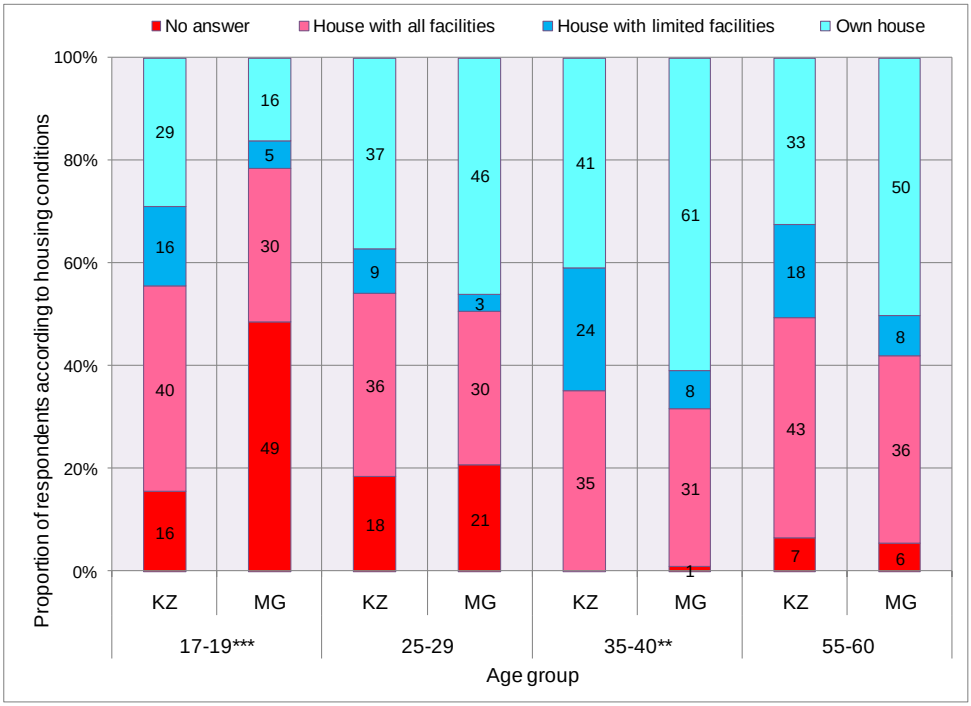
9.2.1 Housing conditions according to the age groups

When analyzing the living conditions according to the age groups of respondents the following results can be observed: in the age group of 55–60 years the majority of respondents in Kazakhstan (43 %) have the houses/flats with all the necessary facilities in comparison with Mongolia, in the age group of 17–19 years it is 40 %, 36 % in the age group of 25–29 years olds and 35 % in the age group 35–40 years. The bigger number of repatriates of the older age groups (18 % and 24 %) live in the places with limited facilities. Only 8 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia have the same living situation. More respondents in Mongolia have their own flats excluding the second generation of repatriates. More people in Mongolia, especially among young people, refused to give the answer to this question (see Figure 16).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to living conditions within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for the age group of 17–19 years old and at the level of 1 % for the age group of 35–40 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Respondents from Kazakhstan have good living conditions in comparison with those from Mongolia. They have more possibilities to improve their living conditions as all the repatriates who come to Kazakhstan are provided with free accommodation granted by the state.

Figure 16 – Housing conditions of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for the age group of 17–19 years p<0.0005, for the age group of 25–29 years p=0.509, for the age group of 35–40 years p=0.007, for the age group of 55–60 years p=0.078
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

9.2.2 Housing conditions according to the place of residence

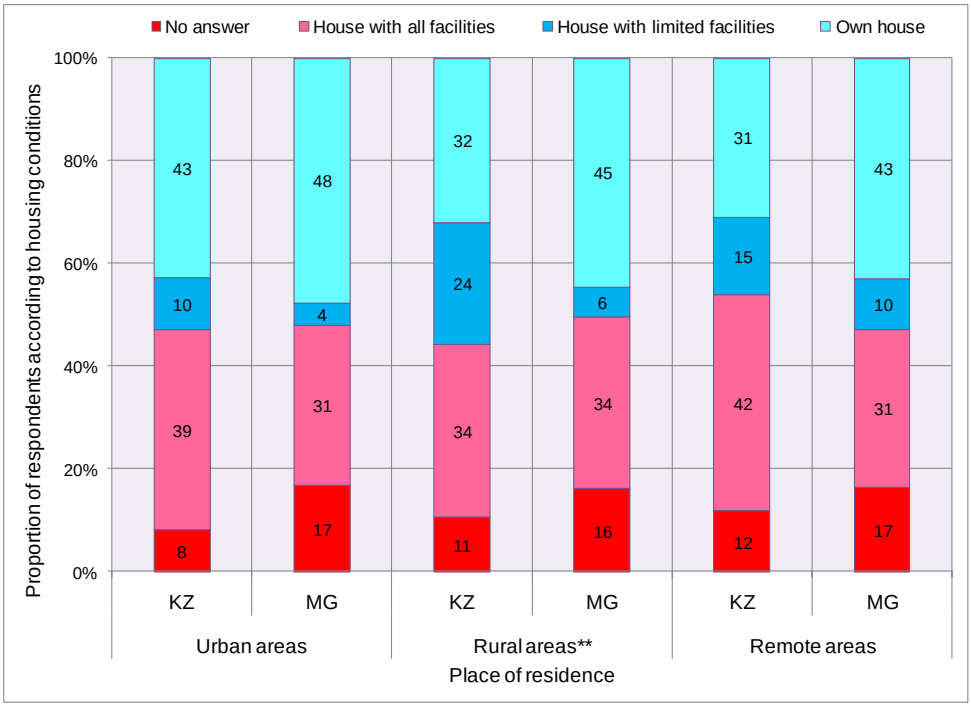
The analysis of the living conditions according to the place of residence shows that the proportion of respondents who live in the houses with all the necessary facilities is larger among the repatriates in barracks (42 %) then in bags (31 %). As for rural areas and somons, the proportion of respondents who live in the houses with all the necessary facilities is 34 %. The analysis of urban areas showed that 30 % of repatriates and 31 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia have good living conditions. The proportion of respondents who are generally unsatisfied with their housing conditions is larger in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia: 24 % in rural areas, 10 % in urban areas and 15 % in barracks; 6 %, 4 % and 10 % in Mongolia respectively. The majority of respondents who own flats live in aimags in comparison with urban areas (48 % and 43 % respectively). If we consider rural areas and somons, 32 % and 45 % respectively have their own place to live, 43 % in remote areas and 31 % in barracks own flats. A lot of people in Mongolia refused to answer these questions (see Figure 17).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to living conditions within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for urban areas. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. The study shows considerable variance of housing conditions according to the place of residence. While repatriates living in urban and rural areas generally live in owned apartments which can be in adequate or good conditions, those living in remote areas frequently live in temporary

constructions in poor conditions. Many houses from remote areas were found to be lacking basic amenities and, in some cases, unfit for habitation. However, the influence of the place of residence on the living conditions of respondents is not statistically significant. It means that repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs are happy with their living situation.

Figure 17 – Housing conditions of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.063, for rural areas p=0.008, for remote areas p=0.202
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

9.2.3 Housing conditions according to educational level

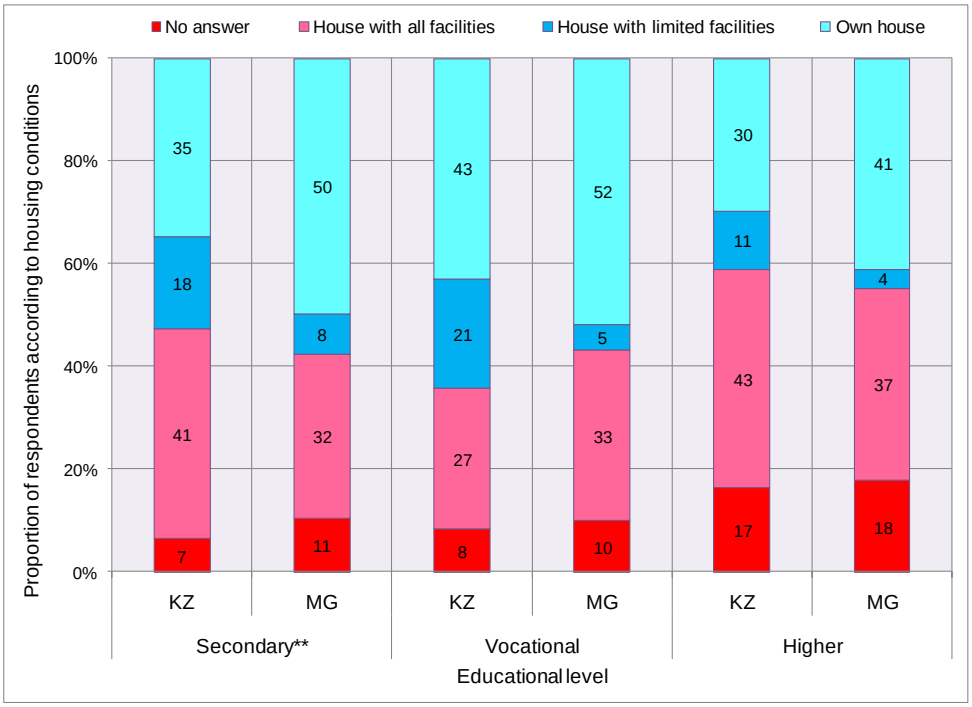
Figure 18 represents the analysis of the living conditions and the educational level of respondents. About 41 % of repatriates with secondary education, 43 % with higher education and 32 % and 37 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia respectively live in the houses/flats with all the necessary facilities. This statistics is given excluding 33 % of people with vocational education. The following statistics describes the situation with the places with limited facilities: 18 % of repatriates with secondary education, 21 % with vocational and 11 % with higher education live in such places. Despite the educational level, more ethnic Kazakhs than repatriates live in their own houses. As for the people who did not respond to this question, the majority of them is women with higher education.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to living conditions within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women with secondary education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. It means that respondents with secondary education only have more difficulties in

comparison with the others. Repatriates with higher education have more troubles than ethnic Kazakhs. However, the majority of respondents are satisfied with their living conditions.

Figure 18 – Housing conditions of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.010, for vocational education p=0.110, for higher education p=0.119

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

9.2.4 Housing conditions according to children ever born

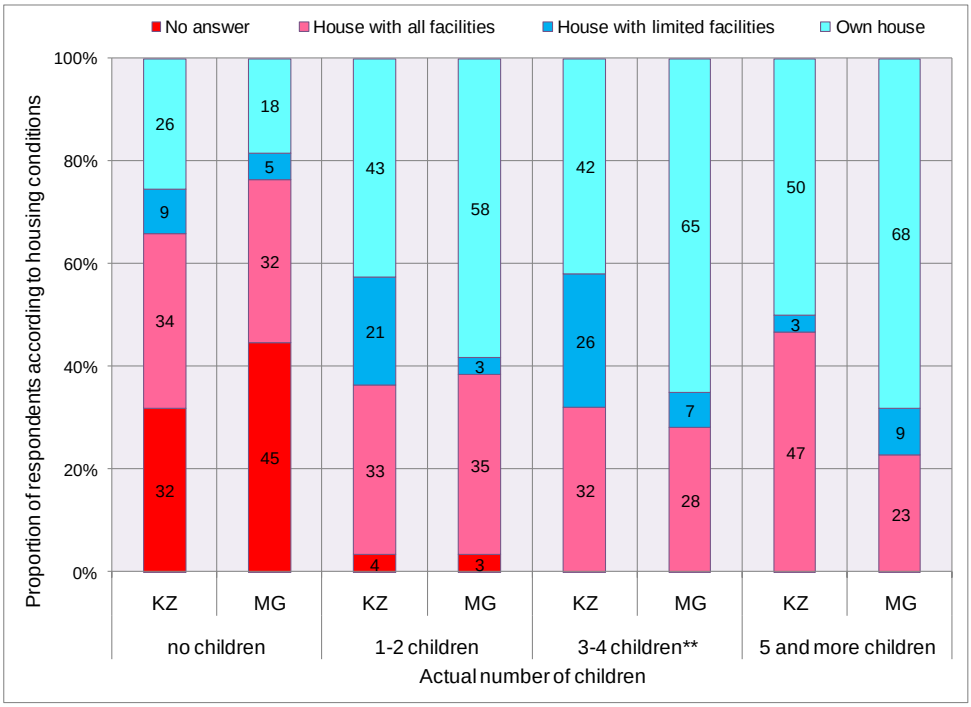
Figure 19 represents the analysis of the influence of the living conditions on fertility. When considering childless women it should be noted that a large number of them decided not to share their opinions (32 % in Kazakhstan and 45 % in Mongolia). The percentage that describes the situation of women who have five and more children and live in comfortable flats/houses shows, that 47 % of repatriates and 23 % of ethnic Kazakhs, for childless women–34 % and 32 % respectively, for women who have one or two children–33 % and 35 % respectively, for women who have three or four children–32 % and 38 % respectively. The bigger majority of those who live in the places with limited facilities are from Kazakhstan other than Mongolia (21 % of women who have one or two children and 26 % of women who have three or four children). For respondents who own flats the statistics is the following: the majority is ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (56 % and 68 %), repatriates in Kazakhstan (42 % and 50 %) excluding childless repatriates (25 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to living conditions within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women with three or four children. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Respondents who do not have children and who did not respond to the questions

mentioned in the beginning of the chapter do not have their own houses. They live either with their relatives or rent flats/houses. Such situation influences family planning. This proves the hypothesis that living conditions influence family planning process among the childless women. More than a quarter of those participated in the opinion poll are women with one to three children. However, living conditions of women with many children are much better in comparison with others in both countries.

Figure 19 – Housing conditions of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.627, for 1–2 children p=0.051, for 3–4 children p=0.012, for 5 and more children p=0.178

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

9.3 Association of the acute problems

In order to understand the scope of problems in the lives of respondents and their influence on fertility it is necessary to consider the answers to the following question: "What are the most acute problems you face in your life?" Respondents had to choose three most important answers out of the suggested options.

9.3.1 Association of the acute problems according to the age group

The analysis of the acute problems of respondents by the age group of respondents is represented in tables 39a and 39b. 57 % of repatriates and 37 % of ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 17–19 years are primarily concerned about low income, 57 % of repatriates and 34 % of ethnic Kazakhs are concerned about expensive public transport, 31 % and 22 % accordingly are uneasy about poor housing conditions. Respondents at the age of 25–29 years are mostly concerned with low income (73 % in Kazakhstan and 40 % in Mongolia). About 49 % of

women in Mongolia and 24 % of women in Kazakhstan are worried about the lack of jobs. Lack of housing is the major problem for 26 % of repatriates and 8 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Expensive public transport is also a matter of concern for women of this age group (50 % among the repatriates and 32 % among ethnic Kazakhs). Respondents of the older generation see the problem of low income as one of the most important in both countries: 62 % and 64 % of respondents in the age group of 35–40, 62 % and 66 % at the age of 55–60 years. Unemployment worries 46 % and 48 % of women at the age of 35–40 years in both countries. However, bad quality of medical services disturbs repatriates more than ethnic Kazakhs: 32 % of women at the age of 35–40 years and 35 % at the age of 55–60 years. In Mongolia the proportion is 16 % and 18 % accordingly. Besides, they are also worried about expensive public transport.

Table 39a– Association of the acute problems of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	The age group of respondent								Pearson	
	17–19				25–29					
	KZ		MG		KZ		MG		17–19	25–29
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes		
1**/***	43	57	64	37	27	73	60	40	0.008	0.0005
2***	71	29	61	39	76	24	51	49	0.111	0.0005
3	97	3	100	0	93	8	90	10	0.163	0.344
4**	93	7	78	22	84	16	92	8	0.005	0.076
5***	82	18	97	3	74	26	92	8	0.001	0.001
6	69	31	78	22	93	8	94	6	0.177	0.430
7	82	18	88	12	75	25	77	23	0.219	0.461
8**	89	11	73	27	86	14	76	24	0.008	0.060
9**/**	43	57	66	34	51	50	68	32	0.003	0.014
10	81	19	91	10	90	10	94	6	0.068	0.241
11	90	10	91	10	83	17	90	10	0.561	0.132
12*	94	6	97	3	98	2	90	10	0.310	0.022
13***/**	87	13	100	0	85	15	97	3	0.001	0.007

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 39b – Association of the acute problems of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	The age group of respondents								Pearson	
	35–40				55–60					
	KZ		MG		KZ		MG		35 – 40	55 – 60
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes		
1	39	62	36	64	34	66	38	62	0.442	0.374
2*	52	48	54	46	79	21	64	36	0.414	0.021
3*	90	10	80	20	88	12	25	29	0.043	0.479
4	87	13	94	7	91	9	85	15	0.090	0.160
5***	84	17	98	2	84	16	100	0	0.0005	0.0005
6	88	12	86	14	90	10	96	4	0.427	0.115
7**	68	32	84	16	65	35	82	18	0.006	0.008
8*	75	25	73	27	81	20	68	32	0.449	0.049
9**	48	52	55	45	33	68	54	46	0.209	0.004
10	96	4	95	5	88	12	91	9	0.601	0.357
11	88	12	90	10	91	9	85	15	0.428	0.160
12	98	2	92	8	94	7	93	7	0.053	0.615
13	97	3	100	0	100	0	100	0	0.095	0

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Problems*

1. Low income
2. Unemployed respondent
3. Unemployed husband
4. Family relationship
5. Without own house
6. Poor housing conditions
7. Low quality of medical service
8. Health problems of a family member
9. Expensive public transport
10. Crime in the city
11. Low level of work of local authorities on social support
12. Lack of free time
13. Lack of personal perspectives

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems such as low income, relations in the family, expensive public transport and health problems of a family member within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 17–19 years old respondents, while lack of housing and lack of any personal prospects are significant at the level of 0.1 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems such as expensive public transport and lack of any personal prospects within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 25–29 years old

respondents, problems as low income and unemployed respondents are significant at the level of 0.1 %, and lack of free time at the level of 5 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problem of low quality of medical services within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 35–40 years old respondents, problem of unemployed husband at the level of 5 % and lack of housing significant at the level of 0.1 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems such as low quality of medical services and expensive public transport within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for the age group of 55–60 years old respondents, problem of unemployed husband at the level of 5 %, and lack of housing at the level of 0.1 %. The analysis of the acute problems by the age groups revealed that respondents are worried about low income and expensive public transport in the first place despite the place of residence. Respondents of the younger generation at the age of 17–19 years are worried about bad living conditions and lack of personal prospects. It means that living conditions of the young generation are below the modern requirements, young people's opinions about their living situation differs from their parents', as they compare their living conditions with those of the local Kazakhs. Older people are satisfied with little and can sometimes hide some information. 25–29 years old repatriates are worried about low income and lack of housing. The older generation is worried about the quality of medical services the most.

9.3.2 Association of the acute problems according to the place of residence

Table 40a and Table 40b show the association of the acute problems in the lives of respondents by the place of residence. Frequently mentioned problems are low income, unemployment and expensive public transport. About 58 % of urban population and 67 % of rural population in Kazakhstan are worried about low income. The same problem is acute for 45 % of urban and 50 % of rural population in Mongolia. However, the number of respondents who live in remote areas is almost the same–67 %. Unemployment is more acute for those who live in Mongolia. It is 50 % for people living in bags and 32 % for people living in the barracks. The proportion of respondents from urban and rural areas is the same. In Mongolia it is about 40–41 % and 30–31 % in Kazakhstan. Expensive public transport is seen as a negative trend by all the respondents, especially those from Kazakhstan.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problem of expensive public transport within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for urban areas, lack of housing and lack of personal perspectives are significant at the level of 0.1 %, and such problems as low income, low quality of medical services, poor housing conditions, health problems of a family member are significant at the level of 5 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problem of low income within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for rural areas, lack of housing at the level of 0.1 %, and expensive public transport at the level of 5 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems of unemployed respondent, health problems of a family member, lack of personal perspectives and crime in the city within the given categories of the place of residence

are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for remote areas, lack of housing at the level of 0.1 %, and expensive public transport with low quality of medical services at the level of 5 %.

Table 40a – Association of the acute problems of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	Place of residence								Pearson	
	Urban areas				Rural areas					
	KZ		MG		KZ		MG		Urban areas	Rural areas
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes		
1*/**	42	58	55	45	33	67	50	50	0.020	0.009
2	69	31	59	41	70	30	60	40	0.060	0.087
3	92	8	88	12	93	7	94	6	0.198	0.442
4	87	13	87	13	89	11	87	13	0.559	0.164
5***/***	79	21	96	4	81	19	96	4	0.0005	0.001
6*	83	17	92	8	86	14	81	19	0.017	0.236
7*	73	27	83	17	70	30	78	22	0.027	0.150
8*	84	16	73	27	80	20	78	22	0.025	0.399
9*/*	48	52	63	37	42	58	58	42	0.011	0.015
10	89	11	93	7	90	10	89	11	0.184	0.530
11	89	11	85	15	84	16	90	10	0.220	0.156
12	94	6	93	7	97	3	93	7	0.451	0.184
13***	92	8	100	0	94	6	99	1	0.0005	0.091

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 40b – Association of the acute problems of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	Place of residence Remote areas				Pearson
	KZ		MG		
	no	yes	no	yes	
1	33	67	32	68	0.505
2**	68	32	49	51	0.005
3	92	8	83	17	0.058
4	89	11	93	7	0.293
5***	82	18	99	1	0.0005
6	85	15	90	10	0.180
7*	76	24	87	13	0.031
8**	84	16	66	34	0.002
9*	43	57	57	43	0.028
10**	87	13	97	3	0.014
11	91	9	95	5	0.228
12	97	3	92	8	0.084
13**	89	11	99	1	0.003

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Problems*

1. Low income
2. Unemployed respondent
3. Unemployed husband
4. Family relationship
5. Without own house
6. Poor housing conditions
7. Low quality of medical service
8. Health problems of a family member
9. Expensive public transport
10. Crime in the city
11. Low level of work of local authorities on social support
12. Lack of free time
13. Lack of personal perspectives

9.3.3 Association of the acute problems according to educational level

Tables 41a and 41b show the influence of the educational level on the acute problems within the country. The major concern of all the respondents is low income (71 % of repatriates and 60 %–68 % of ethnic Kazakhs with secondary and vocational education). Less ethnic Kazakhs (33 %) who graduated from universities are acute about low income than reptriants (53 %). Ethnic Kazakhs with secondary (56 %) and vocational (35 %) education see unemployment as a bigger problem in comparison with repatriates: 26 % and 33 % respectively. However, 36 % of repatriates with higher education are worried about the same issue. No matter how educated respondents are, they are all acute about high public transport costs and low quality of medical services. More than a quarter of repatriates with secondary education who took part in the opinion poll mentioned poor living conditions as a problem.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problem of low income within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for repatriates from Mongolia, while family relationships are significant at the level of 0.1 %, and poor housing conditions together with lack of personal perspectives at the level of 5 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problem of expensive public transport within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia, while low income, unemployed respondent and husband, crime in the city and low level of work of local authorities on social support are significant at the level of 0.1 %. The following problems are acute in Mongolia: low income, unemployment and low quality of medical services. Costly public transport and low income are problematic for all the respondents despite their educational level. Thus, the hypothesis that low educational level will make people face such problems as low income, unemployment and etc is confirmed.

Table 41a – Association of the acute problems of of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	Educational level								Pearson	
	Secondary				Vocational					
	KZ		MG		KZ		MG		KZ	MG
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes		
1**/***	30	71	32	68	30	71	40	60	0.003	0.0005
2***	74	26	44	56	67	33	65	35	0.275	0.0005
3***	94	7	82	18	87	13	83	17	0.265	0.001
4***	95	5	90	10	90	11	88	12	0.0005	0.200
5	81	19	98	2	76	24	95	5	0.324	0.664
6*	78	22	85	15	92	8	97	3	0.023	0.105
7	71	30	85	15	77	23	87	13	0.588	0.254
8	81	19	73	28	85	15	73	27	0.773	0.427
9*	50	50	56	44	44	56	48	52	0.277	0.013
10***	91	9	97	3	90	10	90	10	0.437	0.0005
11***	86	14	92	8	83	17	92	8	0.145	0.001
12	96	4	95	5	96	4	88	12	0.976	0.106
13*	92	8	100	0	97	3	98	2	0.017	0.361

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 41b – Association of the acute problems of of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	Educational level				Pearson	
	Higher					
	KZ		MG		KZ	MG
	no	yes	no	yes		
1**/***	47	53	67	33	0.003	0.000
2***	64	36	69	31	0.275	0.000
3***	94	6	96	4	0.265	0.001
4***	82	18	82	18	0.000	0.200
5	85	15	96	4	0.324	0.664
6*	87	13	90	10	0.023	0.105
7	72	28	77	23	0.588	0.254
8	82	18	68	32	0.773	0.427
9*	37	63	66	34	0.277	0.013
10***	85	15	87	13	0.437	0.005
11***	93	7	79	22	0.145	0.001
12	97	3	90	10	0.976	0.106
13*	88	12	99	1	0.017	0.361

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Problems*

1. Low income
2. Unemployed respondent
3. Unemployed husband
4. Family relationship
5. Without own house
6. Poor housing conditions
7. Low quality of medical service
8. Health problems of a family member
9. Expensive public transport
10. Crime in the city
11. Low level of work of local authorities on social support
12. Lack of free time
13. Lack of personal perspectives

9.3.4 Association of the acute problems according to children ever born

The analysis of the acute problems and their influence on fertility is represented in Tables 42a and 42b. For childless women the most acute problem is low income in both countries (61 % among the repatriates and 40 % among the ethnic Kazakhs). The share of women acute with unemployment is higher in Mongolia (40 %) than in Kazakhstan (25 %). More than a quarter of women among the repatriates are worried about lack of housing, bad living conditions and bad quality of medical services. The proportion of women concerned with expensive public transport is larger among the repatriates (56 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (33 %). For respondents with one or two children the problem of low income is the most topical (72 % of repatriates and 47 % of ethnic Kazakhs). The proportion of women acute with unemployment is larger in Mongolia (51 %) than in Kazakhstan (33 %). Lack of housing is a major problem for 29 % of repatriates and 9 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Women with three or four children are primarily concerned with low income (72 % in Kazakhstan and 60 % in Mongolia). The second major problem is expensive public transport (52 % in Kazakhstan and 47 % in Mongolia). Unemployment is acute for 45 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia and 30 % of repatriates in Kazakhstan. Low income is a topical issue for women with five and more children (63 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 58 % of repatriates). Unemployment is more acute for respondents from Kazakhstan (40 %) than Mongolia (36 %). Bad quality of medical services is seen as a problem by 35 % of repatriates and 18 % of ethnic Kazakhs.

Table 42a –Association of the acute problems of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	Number of children: No children				1–2 children				Pearson	
	KZ		MG		KZ		MG		No children	1–2 children
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes		
1***/**	39	61	60	40	28	72	53	47	0.001	0.003
2**/*	75	25	60	40	67	33	49	51	0.007	0.026
3*	96	4	98	2	93	7	81	19	0.198	0.039
4	88	12	82	18	90	10	93	7	0.109	0.389
5***/**	80	20	97	3	71	29	91	9	0.0005	0.003
6	77	23	86	15	93	7	91	9	0.052	0.476
7	80	20	87	13	69	31	75	25	0.096	0.289
8***	90	10	73	27	83	17	78	22	0.0005	0.327
9***/*	45	56	67	33	47	53	65	35	0.0005	0.031
10**	83	18	93	7	93	7	91	9	0.008	0.476
11	86	14	92	9	93	7	91	9	0.561	0.132
12	96	4	96	4	95	5	85	15	0.608	0.070
13***	86	14	99	1	90	10	97	3	0.0005	0.091

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 42b – Association of the acute problems of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG) by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)

Problems*	Number of children: 3–4 children				5 and more children				Pearson	
	KZ		MG		KZ		MG		3–4 children	5 and more children
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes		
1	28	72	40	60	42	58	36	64	0.086	0.258
2*	70	30	55	45	60	40	64	36	0.029	0.361
3*	93	7	82	18	85	15	88	12	0.031	0.363
4	86	14	10	9	91	9	88	12	0.229	0.403
5***	83	17	99	1	88	12	100	0	0.0005	0.002
6	92	9	91	9	86	14	90	10	0.531	0.336
7**	72	28	83	17	65	35	82	18	0.056	0.013
8	76	24	70	30	77	24	70	30	0.243	0.244
9*	48	52	53	47	39	61	55	45	0.291	0.032
10	96	4	93	8	91	9	96	5	0.292	0.199
11	79	21	88	12	94	6	82	18	0.428	0.160
12	99	1	93	8	95	5	96	5	0.066	0.630
13	100	0	100	0	95	5	100	0	0	0.095

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Problems*

1. Low income
2. Unemployed respondent
3. Unemployed husband
4. Family relationship
5. Without own house
6. Poor housing conditions
7. Low quality of medical service
8. Health problems of a family member
9. Expensive public transport
10. Crime in the city
11. Low level of work of local authorities on social support
12. Lack of free time
13. Lack of personal perspectives

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems such as unemployed respondent and crime in the city within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for childless women, while low income, health problems of a family member, expensive public transport and lack of personal perspectives are significant at the level of 0.1 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems of low income and lack of housing within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for women with one or two children, and unemployed respondent and husband with expensive public transport at the level of 5 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems of unemployed respondent and husband within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 5 % for women with three or four children, while lack of housing significant at the level of 0.1 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the acute problems such as lack of housing and low quality of medical services within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for women with five and more children, and expensive public transport at the level of 5 %. Low income, lack of housing and bad quality of medical services influence fertility negatively and are very problematic for respondents living in Kazakhstan. It proves the following hypothesis: when life standards are low, fertility may improve them (Malthus). Expensive public transport is a big problem for all the respondents despite the number of children and the place of residence.

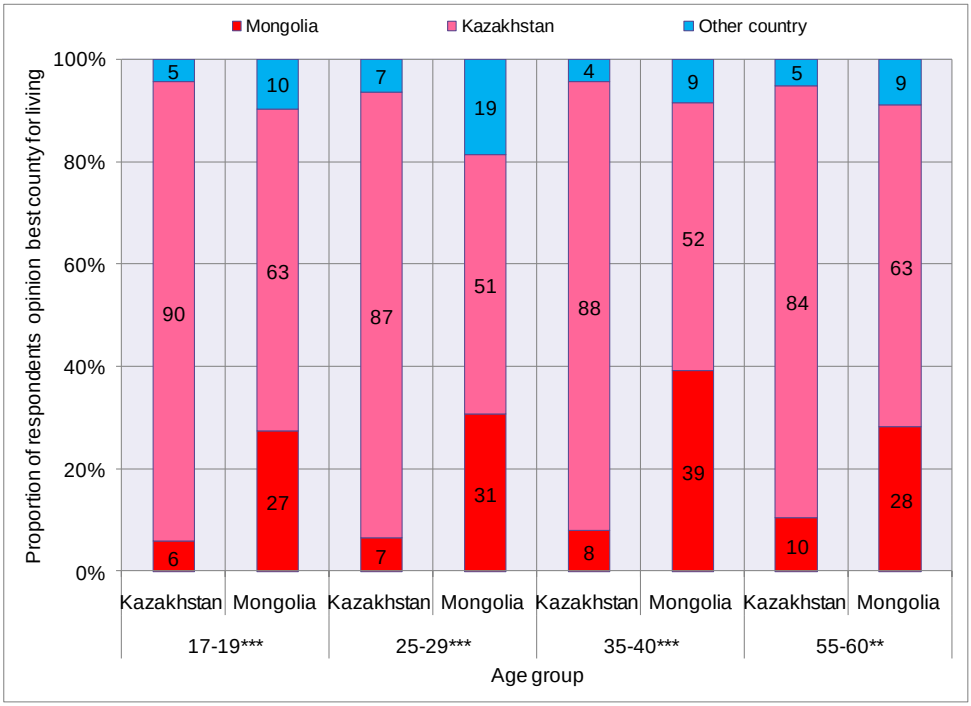
9.4 The best country of residence

9.4.1 The best country for residence according to the age group

When considering repatriates' opinions according to the age group, it can be noticed that 90 % of the second generation repatriates in Kazakhstan at the age of 17–19 years think that Kazakhstan is the best place to live while the opinions of the other age groups are divided almost proportionally at about 84 % and 88 %. About 63 % of respondents at the age of 17–19 and 55–60 years consider Kazakhstan as a good place to live, 28 % mentioned Mongolia as a

good place. However, 51 % and 52 % of women at the age of 25–30 and 35–40 years or a little younger consider Kazakhstan as a favorable place to live. Among ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 25–29 years 19 % of women think that it would be better to live abroad (Figure 20).

Figure 20 – Respondents' opinions concerning the best country for living by selected age group, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for the age group of 17–19 years p<0.0005, for 25–29 years p<0.0005, for 35–40 years p<0.0005, for 55–60 years p=0.007
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

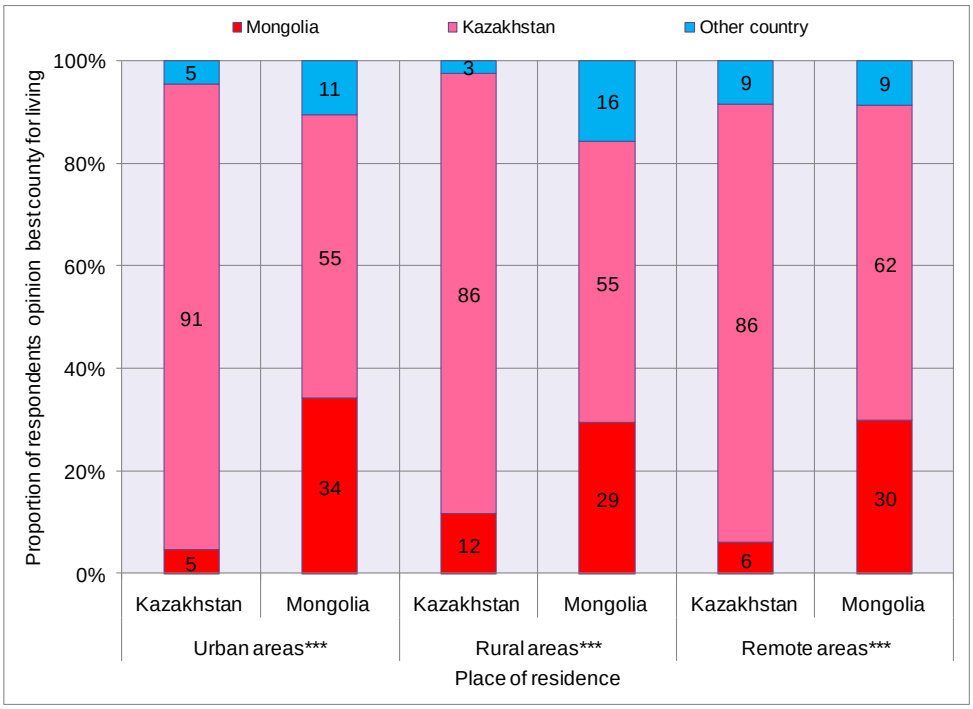
Differences among the distributions of women according to opinions about the best place of residence within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. The majority of respondents consider Kazakhstan as the best place to live, however there is a certain number of women among ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 25–29 years who give their preferences to living abroad. Respondents at this age are on the way of searching the optimal options in their lives. They are ready to move, have more information and good education. They are well-placed in the employment market. These are the people in Mongolia who studied in Turkey or in Kazakhstan. European education, living abroad, mass media and other sources of information influence the opinions of the young respondents to a great extent. Regarding the older groups of repatriates, it can be said that they have already gained some valuable experience while living in Mongolia before repatriation. This group will help to determine and consider the situation after 19 years spent in Kazakhstan. They take into account their living experience in Mongolia.

9.4.2 The best country for residence according to the place of residence

The analysis of the respondent's opinions concerning the best country for living according to the current place of residence is presented in Figure 21. When considering the difference

between aimag and the city, it can be seen that 91 % of repatriates and 55 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia believe that Kazakhstan is the best place to live, and only 34 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 5 % of repatriates stated Mongolia as a favorable place of residence. If taking into acoount a village and somon, it can be seen that in this case Kazakhstan is still the best place to live according to the opinions of 86 % of people among the repatriates and 55 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Respondents in favor of Mongolia constitute 29 % among the ethnic Kazakhs and 12 % among the repatriates. If we consider the opinions of residents from remote areas, it can be seen that even despite the dreadful living conditions in abandoned barracks, 86 % of repatriates and 62 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia consider Kazakhstan as the best place to live. Respondents who would like to live in other countries constitute 16 % in Mongolia, especially among the respondents who live in somons.

Figure 21 – Respondents' opinions concerning the best country for living by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p<0.0005, for rural areas p<0.0005, for remote areas p<0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

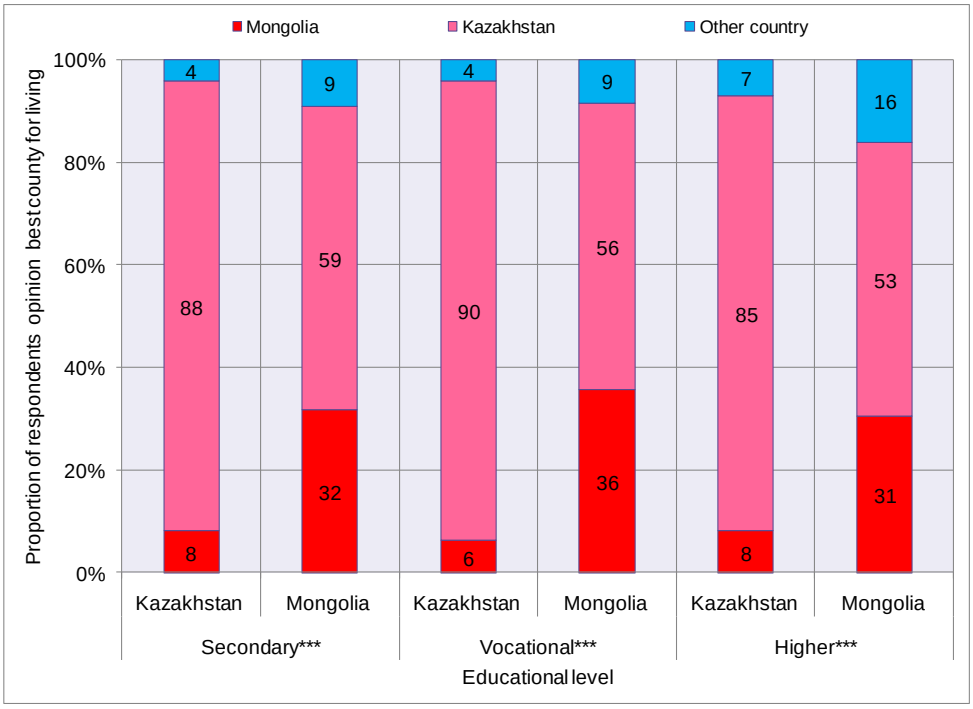
Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to opinions about the best place of residence within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. The analysis of respondents' opinions about the best country of residence showed that Kazakhstan is the top choice among the respondents despite their place of residence. Despite the bad living conditions in abandoned barracks, the second group of repatriates who did not manage to integrate into the new society considers Kazakhstan to be the better place. The diffusion of information from the relatives in Kazakhstan to the relatives in Mongolia should not be neglected in this case.

9.4.3 The best country for residence according to educational level

Figure 22 shows the analysis of respondents' opinions on the best place of residence according to their educational level. No matter what educational background respondents have, repatriates from Kazakhstan consider it to be the best place to live (85 % and 90 %). More than half of ethnic Kazakhs who live in Mongolia (53 % and 39 %) consider Kazakhstan to be the best place of residence. However, 16 % of women with higher education in Mongolia mentioned other countries as an option for living. In Kazakhstan this opinion is shared by 7 % of women with higher education.

Figure 22– Respondents' opinions concerning the best country for living by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p<0.0005, for vocational education p<0.0005, for higher education p<0.0005

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

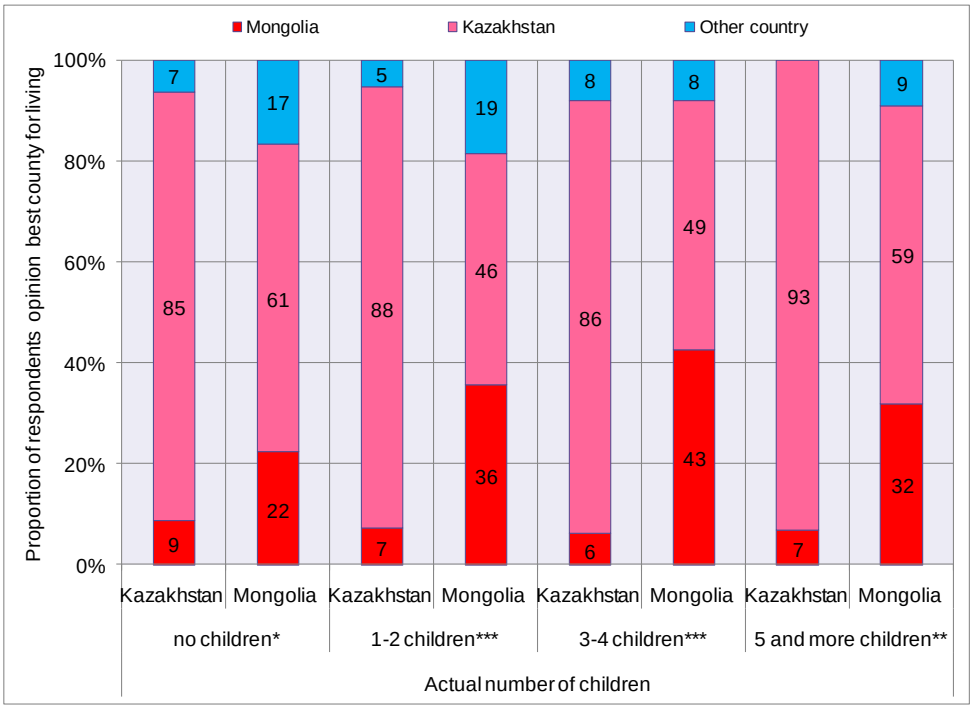
Differences among the distributions of women according to opinions about the best place of residence within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. The assumption made before was confirmed: 19 % of women with higher education consider other countries to be a better place to live.

9.4.4 The best country for residence according to children ever born

Figure 23 shows the analysis of respondents' opinions concerning the best country for living according to the actual number of children. Kazakhstan is believed to be the best place of residence by repatriates despite the number of children they have. This opinion prevails among the repatriates who have five and more children (93 %) and among the childless respondents (85 %). The proportion of women who have one or two children is 88 % and those who have

three or four children constitute 86 %. Respondents who live in Mongolia consider Kazakhstan to be the best place of residence. Among them there are childless women (61 %), women with five and more children (59 %). Some of respondents especially ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia think that living abroad would be a better option. About 9 % of childless repatriates mentioned that Mongolia is a good place for them to live in.

Figure 23 – Respondents' opinions concerning the best country for living by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.050, for 1–2children p<0.0005, for 3–4 children p<0.0005, for 5 and more children p=0.010
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The analysis of repatriates' opinions on the best place of residence revealed the fact that all repatriates, despite the number of children they have, consider Kazakhstan as the best place to live. Differences among the distributions of women according to opinions about the best place of residence within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for women with one or two and three or four children, at the level of 1 % for women with five and more children and finally at the level of 5 % for childless women.

9.5 Plans for future moving

In order to evaluate the number and characteristics of the future migrants to Kazakhstan, the connection between such factors as family size, educational background, age, and the place of the residence must be established. It is also important to see how these factors influence the mobility of respondents.

9.5.1 Plans for future moving according to the age groups

The analysis of the influence of respondents' age on the plans of moving in the nearest future is shown in Table 43. The amount of women who do not plan to move is larger in Kazakhstan in comparison with Mongolia (94 % of 17–19 years olds, 85 % of 25–29 years olds, among the ethnic Kazakhs 60 % and 49 % respectively). 35–40 and 55–60 years old women share the same opinion and would not like to move. Among them 88 % belong to repatriates and 54 % to ethnic Kazakhs. More mobile group for moving is represented by 25–29 and 55–60 years old women in Mongolia. Within the country, 7 % and 8 % of repatriates would like to move from rural to urban areas. Differences among the distributions of women according to the plans for future moving within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases.

Table 43– Respondents' opinions concerning future plans of moving by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)

Moving places	The age group of respondents							
	17–19***		25–29***		35–40***		55–60***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Not going to move	94	60	85	49	88	50	88	53
Within the country (from city to another city)	2	6	4	3	4	1	1	2
Within the country (from village to city)	2	1	8	0	8	2	7	0
To another country	0	4	0	5	0	12	0	32
Back to Mongolia (from Mongolia to Kazakhstan)	1	21	1	31	0	27	0	32
Others	0	8	2	12	0	9	1	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.0005		0.0005		0.0005		0.0005	

Notes: Student test at the level of p<0.0005 according to all age groups
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The analysis revealed that ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 25–29 and 55–60 years are the most active in terms of migration. It is a well-known fact that young people at the age of 17–19 years are usually eager to move since the older a person gets, the less mobile he/she becomes. It can be assumed that ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 55–60 years are so enthusiastic about moving as they would like to see the motherland of their ancestors. Besides, they are the parents of respondents from the age group of 25–29 years. That means that they follow their children who would like to have a better life and are competitive in the job market. Their children would like to create a better future for their own children. For these reasons they are looking for the countries where they can get this chance. The opinions of respondents at the age of 17–19 years who would not like to move may be explained by the fact that they are still at high schools and

would like to study at the universities in Mongolia. Respondents at the age of 35–40 years are the parents of the youngest group. They have good jobs and a good life in Mongolia.

9.5.2 Plans for future moving according to the place of residence

The analysis of the association between the variables describing the plans for moving in the context of respondents' place of residence showed that more respondents in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia expressed the intention to stay in the country (92 % in barracks, 39 % in bags, 88 % in Zhairem, 56 % in Mongolian somons, 86 % in towns and only 57 % in aimag). About 1 % of respondents who live in urban and rural areas would like to move back from Kazakhstan to Mongolia. However, there are 30 % of ethnic Kazakhs in bags, 28 % in aimags and 25 % in somons who would like to move to Kazakhstan. The proportion of respondents who would like to more to other countries is larger in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan (11 % live in a somon). 5 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia would like to move from one somon to another (see Table 44).

Table 44 – Respondents' opinions concerning future plans of moving by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)

Moving places	Place of residence					
	Urban areas***		Rural areas***		Remote areas***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Not going to move	86	57	88	56	92	39
Within the country (from city to another city)	4	1	5	5	1	5
Within the country (from village to city)	8	1	5	0	5	1
To another country	1	7	1	11	0	2
Back to Mongolia (from Mongolia to Kazakhstan)	1	28	1	25	0	30
Others	0	6	1	4	2	23
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.0005		0.0005		0.0005	

Notes: Student test according to the place of residence for urban areas p<0.0005, for rural areas p<0.0005, for remote areas p<0.0005

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the plans for future moving within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. Repatriates who live in Kazakhstan do not want to move anywhere. They are content with their life style despite the fact that some of them live in the abandoned military barracks without any living conditions inside (see Appendices 29, 30, 31). The opinions of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia can be divided into three main groups. Most of them do not plan any moving, over the quarter of respondents want to move to Kazakhstan and the last group plans moving to other parts of the country. The reason was mass migration of ethnic Kazakhs to Kazakhstan which led to abandoned settlements, huge distances, lack of infrastructure, lack of maternity hospitals and etc. During the last three years severe frosts in Mongolia brought great losses to the total number of livestock, making people go bankrupt. Especially severe

consequences were faced by Kazakhs in Bayan-Ulgii, many of whom would like to move to Kazakhstan. In the middle of 2009 the number of Kazakhs who would like to move to Kazakhstan rose dramatically. The number of repatriates registered for moving to Kazakhstan reached 3300 people. These are about 650 families and all the migrants are former cattle breeders who do not have money to move to their homeland (Kapkyzy E, 2010).

9.5.3 Plans for future moving according to educational level

Table 45 represents the analysis of the association between the variables of the plans for moving according to the educational level of respondents. About 94 % of female repatriates with basic secondary education are not planning to move in the coming years. The same can be said about 88 % of women with vocational education and 83 % of women with higher education. The rates for Mongolia are 50 %, 58 % and 51 % respectively. About 33 % of women with higher education, 27 % of women with secondary education and 25 % with vocational education would like to move from Mongolia to Kazakhstan. The number of respondents who would like to move to other countries is the same which is between 6 % and 7 % among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia excluding 2 % of repatriates with higher education from Kazakhstan. Some respondents in Kazakhstan would like to move from rural to urban areas: 10 % of them graduated from universities and 4 % are the others.

Table 45 – Respondents' opinions concerning future plans of moving by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)

Moving places	Educational level					
	Secondary***		Vocational***		Higher***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Not going to move	94	50	88	58	83	51
Within the country (from city to another city)	1	4	6	0	4	3
Within the country (from village to city)	4	1	4	2	10	0
To another country	0	7	0	7	2	6
Back to Mongolia (from Mongolia to Kazakhstan)	0	27	0	25	2	33
Others	1	11	1	8	1	8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.0005		0.0005		0.0005	

Notes: Student test at the level of p<0.0005 according to all education levels
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the plans for future moving within the the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. Respondents from Mongolia who graduated from a university are more mobile than women with high school or vocational education. It can be explained by the fact that university graduates are more self-confident and can easily find a job despite moving to another country.

9.5.4 Plans for future moving according to children ever born

Table 46 shows the association between the plans to move and the number of children respondents have. Despite the number of children, more respondents in Kazakhstan do not want to move in the near future. About 94 % of repatriates with three or four children, 89 % of childless women, 83 % of women with five and more children and 79 % of women with one-two children would like to stay in Kazakhstan. 63 % of women with two children among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are unlikely to move anywhere. 32 % of women with five and more children would not like to move either. 45 % of childless women and 50 % of women who have five and more children would like to move from Mongolia to Kazakhstan. About 11 % of repatriates who have three or more children would like to move within the country (from city to city), 17 % of repatriates who have large families would like to move from rural areas to the city.

Table 46 – Respondents' opinions concerning future plans of moving by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)

Moving places	The age group of respondents							
	no children***		1–2 children***		3–4 children***		5 and more children***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Not going to move	89	37	79	63	94	50	83	32
Within the country (from city to another city)	2	0	11	0	2	6	0	0
Within the country (from village to city)	2	0	11	2	4	0	17	5
To another country	0	13	0	5	0	10	0	9
Back to Mongolia (from Mongolia to Kazakhstan)	2	45	0	18	0	22	0	50
Others	4	5	0	12	0	13	0	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.0005		0.0005		0.0005		0.0005	

Notes: Student test at the level of p<0.0005 according to the actual number of respondents
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the plans for future moving within the the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. The groups of childless women and those women with a lot of children are more mobile in Mongolia and are ready to move. Based on the analysis, it can be assumed that women from these two groups face more problems in comparison with others.

9.6 Change of life conditions of own family during the past 10 years

Another question that was asked during the opinion poll was how the quality of life changed in respondents' families during the last decade. The analysis of the answers will help us to evaluate and compare the quality of life of repatriates in Kazakhstan and ethnic Kazakhs in

Mongolia. The following hypotheses will be tested: first, how the qualities of life depend on the educational level of respondents, second, how living conditions influence fertility.

9.6.1 Change of life conditions according to the age groups

The influence of the age groups on respondents' opinions about the changes in the quality of life of their families is represented in Table 47. When considering the opinions of 17–19 years old respondents we can see that 52 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 49 % of repatriates think that the quality of life has improved, 23 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 17 % of repatriates consider their life to be much better, more than a quarter of repatriates of this age group (28 %) think that the quality of life has not changed. Among them 13 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia believe that the quality of their life has deteriorated. Among the 25–29 years old respondents prevails the opinion that the quality of life is improving (69 % of ethnic Kazakhs, 63 % of the repatriates). About 25 % of repatriates do not see any changes in their present quality of life. Among 60 % of repatriates and 54 % of ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 35–40 years consider the quality of their life to be improving. More ethnic Kazakh females at the age of 55–60 years believe that the quality of their life is becoming better. Only 48 % of repatriates share the same opinion. However, 30 % of repatriates and 18 % of ethnic Kazakhs consider the quality of life as unchanged.

Table 47 – Respondents' opinions about change of life conditions for the past 10 years by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)

Conditions	The age group of respondents							
	17–19**		25–29		35–40		55–60	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Perfect	17	23	7	3	11	14	13	12
Improved	49	52	63	69	60	54	48	62
Without changes	28	8	25	13	24	18	30	18
Deteriorated	6	13	2	5	2	13	9	4
Difficult to answer	–	5	3	10	2	1	0	3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.006		0.060		0.052		0.090	

Notes: Student test for the age group of 17–19 years p=0.006, for 25–29 years p=0.060, for 35–40 years p=0.052, for 55–60 years p=0.090

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the changes of life conditions within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only in the case of the age group of 17–19 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Despite the age group, all respondents see positive improvement in the quality of their present life.

9.6.2 Change of life conditions according to the place of residence

Table 48 shows the analysis of the association between the changes in the quality of life and the places of residence of respondents during the last ten years. About 62 % of women living in urban areas think that the quality of their life is improving. In rural areas 59 % of women share the same opinion and in somons there are 57 % of respondents with the same opinion. In remote areas 55 % of respondents living in bags and 46 % in barracks consider their life on the way of improvement. The proportion of respondents who think that the quality of their life is the same is larger in barracks (35 %) than in bags (14 %). The majority of respondents with deteriorated conditions of life live in Mongolia. Their number is higher in bags (16 %) than in barracks (8 %).

Table 48 – Respondents' opinions about change of life conditions for the past 10 years by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)

Conditions	Place of residence					
	Urban areas		Rural areas		Remote areas***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Perfect	13	12	11	15	12	10
Improved	62	62	59	57	46	55
Without changes	20	15	25	15	35	14
Deteriorated	3	7	3	5	8	16
Difficult to answer	2	3	3	8	0	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.470		0.194		0.001	

Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.470, for rural areas p=0.194, for remote areas p=0.001
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the changes of life conditions within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only for remote areas. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. It can be explained by the fact that people who live there, are nomads what makes their lives different from the life style of respondents from urban areas. Male nomads are usually cattle breeders, and women are usually housewives.

9.6.3 Change of life conditions according to educational level

Table 49 shows the influence of respondents' educational level on their opinions concerning the quality of life in each family. If taking into account respondents with higher education, 12 % of repatriates and 21 % of ethnic Kazakhs think that the quality of their life is perfect. The proportion of ethnic Kazakhs with vocational education and higher education is the same and constitutes 61%. In Kazakhstan there are 61 % of people with vocational education and 51 % of people with higher education. Despite the level of education among the repatriates, more than a quarter of women who took part in the opinion poll consider the quality of their life to be unchanged during the last decade. The worst quality of life, according to respondents' opinions was mentioned by women with secondary education in Mongolia.

Table 49 – Respondents' opinions about change of life conditions for the past 10 years by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)

Conditions	Educational level					
	Secondary***		Vocational		Higher**	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Perfect	17	4	4	15	12	21
Improved	48	58	61	61	59	61
Without changes	29	20	30	19	22	8
Deteriorated	7	14	2	3	4	4
Difficult to answer	0	4	3	2	2	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.0005		0.113		0.010	

Notes: Student test for secondary education p<0.0005, for vocational education p=0.113, for higher education p=0.010

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the changes of life conditions within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only for women with secondary education and the level of 1 % for women with higher education. In other case they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. Respondents who graduated from universities have better living conditions than repatriates from Kazakhstan. However, repatriates with vocational education live in better conditions in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The social research revealed that fertility rate of repatriates is much higher than that of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia despite the living conditions of the new environment. Bayan-Ulgii aimag is economically underdeveloped and influences respondents negatively. The changes in the reproductive behaviour are typical for repatriates of the second generation who were born and grew up in Kazakhstan.

9.6.4 Change of life conditions according to children ever born

Table 50 shows the analysis of the associations between the variables of the changing quality of a family's life according to the number of children. The proportion of women who think that the quality of their life is improving prevails. This proportion is larger among the repatriates who have five and more children (87 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs (36 %). Despite the place of residence, the opinions of childless women (64 % and 65 %) coincide with the opinions of women who have one or two children (63 %). However, ethnic Kazakhs who have three or four children are more content with their life (64 %) in comparison to repatriates (42 %). The majority of respondents who considered the quality of life unchanged live in Kazakhstan. Among them 36 % of women with three or four children live in Kazakhstan and 12 % in Mongolia. It is interesting to note that ethnic Kazakhs who have five and more children (32 %) described the quality of their lives as deteriorated.

Table 50 – Respondents' opinions about change of life conditions for the past 10 years by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)

Conditions	Number of children							
	No children		1–2 children		3–4 children**		5 and more children***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Perfect	4	4	7	7	18	12	3	14
Improved	65	64	63	63	42	64	87	36
Without changes	28	21	19	17	36	12	10	18
Deteriorated	2	4	4	7	2	8	0	32
Difficult to answer	0	7	7	7	2	4	0	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Pearson	0.440		0.952		0.010		0.001	

Notes: Student test for no children p=0.440, for 1-2 children p=0.952, for 3–4 children p=0.010, for 5 and more children p=0.001

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the changes of life conditions within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only for women with five and more children and at the level of 1 % for women with three or four children. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. It can be observed that new environment influences repatriates positively. For mothers of many children the quality of life has significantly improved during the last decade. It proves the hypothesis about the stimulating influence of social and economic changes on the fertility of respondents.

9.7 Family income

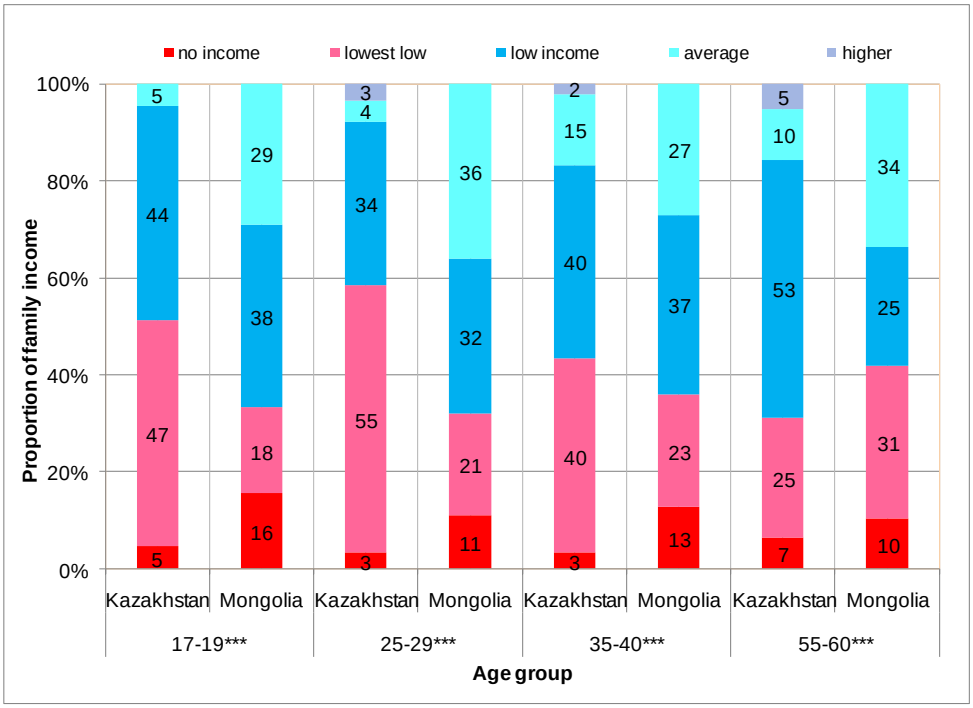
In this part we will analyze the relationship between income and fertility of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. There is a lot of evidence that fertility is negatively related to income in most countries. The basic examples that we will discuss here focus on the roles of the cost of children, the relationship between family income and education. Our hypothesis is that children are viewed as an investment providing old-age security and richer families want fewer children which is called the quantity-quality hfypothesis. The minimum subsistence level in Kazakhstan in July 2009 was estimated by the Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan at KZT 12 948 (150,71/$1) per person (Profinance News, 2009).

9.7.1 Family income according to the age groups

Figure 24 shows how age influences family income. When considering repatriates' opinions of the second generation, it can be seen that 47 % of them live in minimal-income families and 44 % have low-income families. Middle class families constitute only 5 %. Ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 17–19 years live in the families with the lowest low (38 %) and average income (29 %). Moreover, 16 % of young people in Mongolia live in the families without any income. In the

age group of 25–29 years the proportion of repatriates with lowest low (34 %) and minimal (55 %) income is larger than of ethnic Kazakhs (32 % and 21 % respectively). The proportion of ethnic Kazakhs with average (36 %) and no income (11 %) is higher than of repatriates (3 % and 4 %). The proportion of women with the lowest low (40 %) and low (40 %) family income is higher among the 35–40 years old repatriates in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs (37 % and 23 % respectively). More than a quarter of women (35–40 years old) who took part in the opinion poll have average income and live in Mongolia. Among the 55–60 years old repatriates the number of women (53 %) with low family income is higher than that of ethnic Kazakhs (25 %). However, 34 % of ethnic Kazakhs of the same age have average income in comparison with 10 % of repatriates.

Figure 24 – Income by selected age groups of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for all the age groups of respondents at the level of p<0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

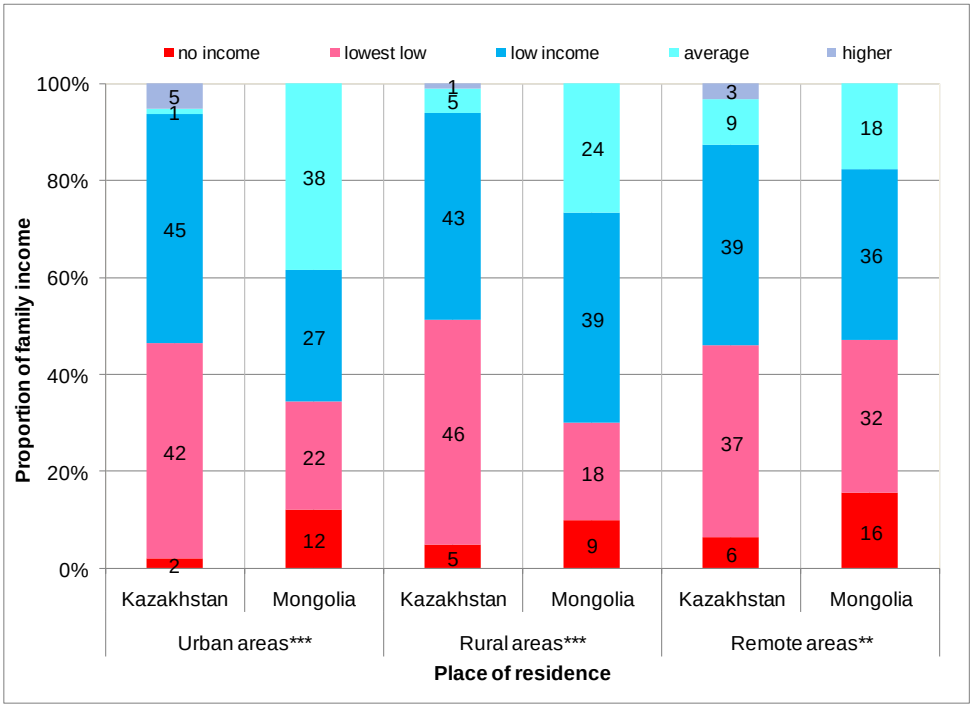
Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to family income within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. Despite the age, women with low family income can be found in both countries. In Mongolia most of the families either have middle income or no income at all. 25–29 years old repatriates have minimal income and ethnic Kazakhs have average income. Families with middle income can be found in Kazakhstan among older age groups. It can be assumed that they live in third-generation families and have children of working age who are income-earners in the family. Women with many children usually get child benefits. The oldest group is granted pensions by the government, etc.

9.7.2 Family income according to the place of residence

Living standards and income define the level of development of each country. Figure 25 shows how the place of residence influences family income of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs. The lowest low income per repatriate family can be found in rural (46 %) and urban (42 %) areas of Kazakhstan in comparison with 18 % in somons and 22 % in aimags. The proportion of respondents with the lowest income level is similar in both countries among the women who live in remote areas (32 % and 37 %). Respondents with low income in Kazakhstan live in cities (45 %), rural areas (43 %) and barracks (39 %). In Mongolia this number is about 27 % and 37 %. The average income families live in aimags (38 %) and somons (24 %). In Kazakhstan only 5 % and 9 % of repatriates can be found in rural areas or barracks. High income families constitute only 5 % in urban areas and 3 % in remote areas of Kazakhstan.

Figure 25 – Income by place of residence, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p<0.0005, for rural areas p<0.0005, for remote areas p=0.010
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

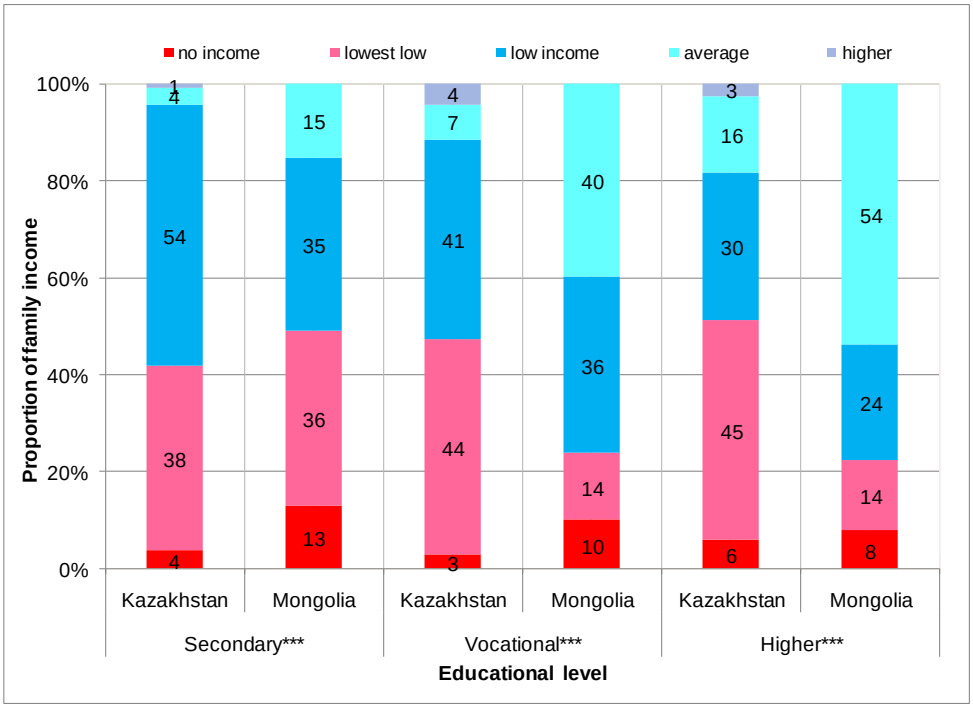
Differences among the distributions of women according to family income within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for urban and rural areas, at the level of 1 % for remote areas. There are almost no families with middle income in Kazakhstan (50,000–60,000 tenge, $340–470). Despite the place of residence most of women in Kazakhstan have low family income (30,000–50,000 tenge, $200–340) and minimal family income (20,000–30,000 tenge, $130–200). Most of women in Mongolia have low family income (50,000–100,000 tugriks, $39–78) and middle family income (110,000–200,000 tugriks, $85–156). Despite the fact that Mongolia is an underdeveloped country, ethnic Kazakhs have higher average income than repatriates in Kazakhstan. If to convert into US dollars, the average

income constitutes $156 in Mongolia and $470 in Kazakhstan. The average income in Mongolia is regarded to be the lowest in Kazakhstan. The living standards in Kazakhstan are better than in Mongolia.

9.7.3 Family income according to educational level

Figure 26 shows the influence of the educational level on the family income. If taking into account respondents with secondary education, 54 % of repatriates and 35 % of ethnic Kazakhs are with low family income. The proportion of respondents with the lowest low income is similar in both countries (26 %, 38 %). Among the respondents the proportion of those who have secondary education and lowest low income is larger in Mongolia (15 %) than in Kazakhstan (4 %). Among the respondents with vocational education the proportion of repatriates with low (41 %) and the lowest low (44 %) income is larger in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia with 36 % and 14 % respectively. More women (vocational education) with the average family income live in Mongolia (40 %) than in Kazakhstan. As for respondents with higher education, the proportion of women with lowest low income is higher in Kazakhstan (45 %) than in Mongolia (14 %). More ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (54 %) than repatriates (16 %) have average income. Among the respondents with higher education there are women (6 % and 8 %) who do not have any family income. Insignificant number of repatriates in Kazakhstan (1 % and 4 %) has high income.

Figure 26 – Income by attained level of education, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test according to all educational level of respondents at the level p<0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

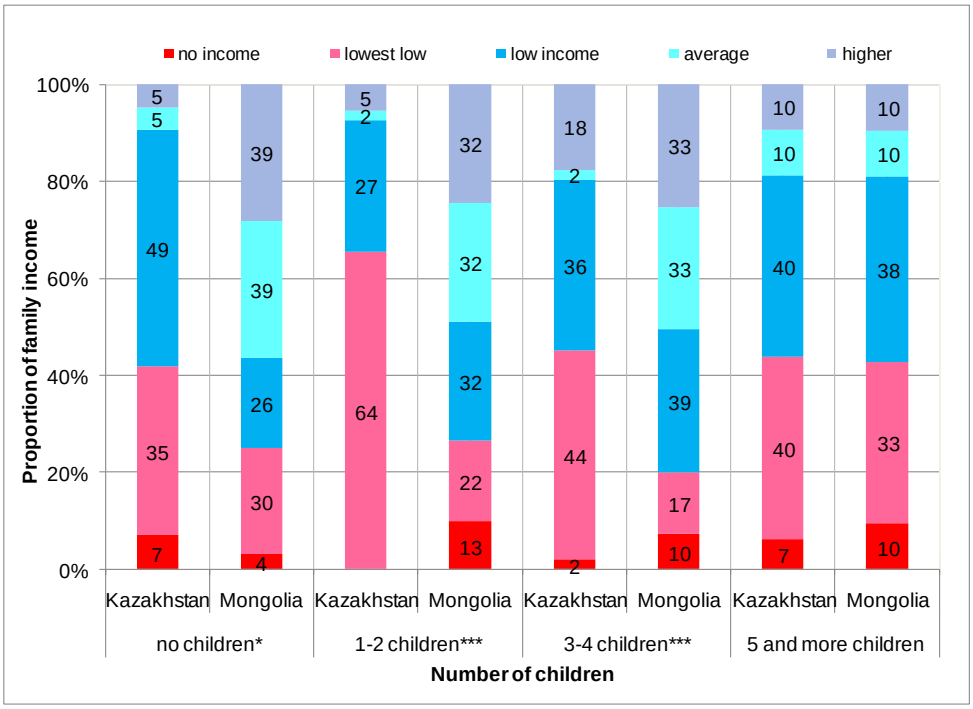
Differences among the distributions of women according to family income within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases.

Respondents with higher education and no family income can be found in both countries. Ethnic Kazakhs have higher average family income than repatriates. The analysis revealed that women with higher education have higher income than less educated women.

9.7.4 Family income according to children ever born

Figure 27 shows the interdependence between the income level and the number of children that repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs have. Among the childless repatriates there are more families with low income (49 %) and minimal income (35 %). For ethnic Kazakhs the percentage is 26 % and 30 % respectively. 37 % of female ethnic Kazakhs and 5 % of female repatriates without children have high income. In the families with one or two children there are 27 % of repatriates with low and 64 % with minimal family income. If taking into account ethnic Kazakhs, it can be mentioned: those who have one or two children have low, middle or high income (at the level of 32 %). People with minimal income constitute only 22 %. Among the repatriates with three or four children, there are 36 % of women with low and 44 % with minimal income. For ethnic Kazakhs the results are 39 % and 17 % respectively. The proportion of ethnic Kazakhs with middle and high family income is the same at the level of 33 %. For repatriates it is 2 % and 18 % respectively. About 40 % of repatriates and 33 % and 38 % of ethnic Kazakhs with large families have low or minimal income. Approximately 10 % of women with middle and higher income are found in both countries. About 10 % and 13 % of ethnic Kazakhs do not have any income. In Kazakhstan 2 % and 7 % of people live in a similar situation.

Figure 27 – Income by number of children ever born, repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia), sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.015, for 1–2 children p<0.0005, for 3–4 children p<0.0005, for 5 and more children p=0.207

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to family income within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for childless women and at the level of 0.1 % for women with one or two children and three or four children. Family income of respondents with large families is similar in both countries. Women with minimal income prevail in Kazakhstan. The exceptions are childless women with low family income. The influence of income on fertility is proven. Childless repatriates or those with one or two children have minimal income; they do not get any support from the government as no grants are available for those with one or two children in Kazakhstan. The repatriates with three or four children and large families have high family income, every month they are entitled for governmental grants/benefits. The hypothesis that the richer a family is, the fewer children they have is not correct for repatriates in Kazakhstan. The analysis shows that the more children there are in a family, the higher the average income is. Those with one or two children or without any are poor. However, the results for Mongolia are different. Ethnic Kazakhs with fewer children have higher income. Large families are, as a rule, poor.

10. Cultural orientation, attitudes, norms and values of children and its influence on reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia

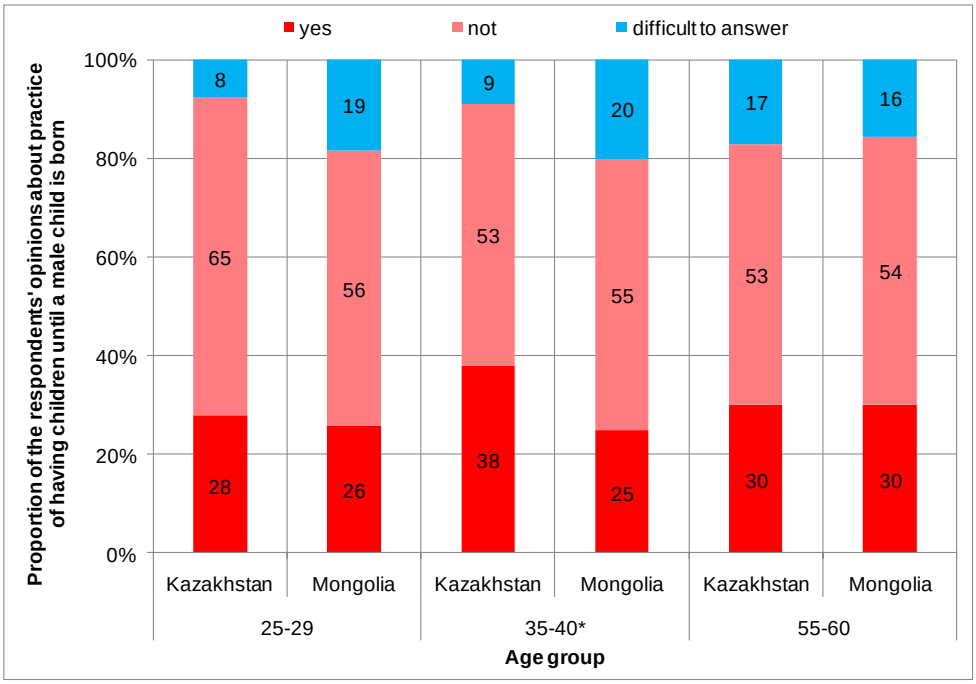
10.1 Practice to deliver until a male child is born

Cultural orientation is the degree to which individuals are influenced by and actively engage in the traditions, norms, and practices of a specific culture. This chapter examines the attitudes of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia towards cultural and traditional sex preferences of children, values of children, attitudes towards abortion, the role of a husband in a family. It is known that people in many countries give preferences to male children. Such preference is wide- spread in China, North Korea, India, Pakistan, Azerbaijan, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan. Female infants, girls and women are prejudiced against when it comes to nutrition and health care. Due to the advances in technology, determining the sex of the fetus in the womb is now possible at an early stage of pregnancy. Girls are aborted or killed following the birth or are set out. In that case it is interesting to find out the opinions of more traditional Kazakh families from Kazakhstan and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. In order to compare attitudes of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia it is necessary to consider it according to the actual number of children, by the age groups, urban and rural place of residence and the level of female education.

10.1.1 The opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born according to the age groups

The opinions of respondents about the practice of having children until a male child is born by the age groups are presented in Figure 28. The questionnaires in this case were distributed only to female respondents of 25–29, 35–40 and 55–60 years of age having families (husband and children). The opinions of 17–19 years old female respondents who have not started childbearing are not significant for the analysis. About 38 % of repatriates and 25 % of ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 35–40 years accept such practice. Their opinion is shared by a quarter of 25–29 years old female respondents. Regardless of the age, 53 % and 60 % of respondents condemn this practice. However, the opinions of 55–60 years old women are similar regardless of the country of residence (Mongolia, Kazakhstan).

Figure 28 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning the practice of having children until a male child is born by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.329, for 35–40 years p=0.028, for 55–60 years p=0.420
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

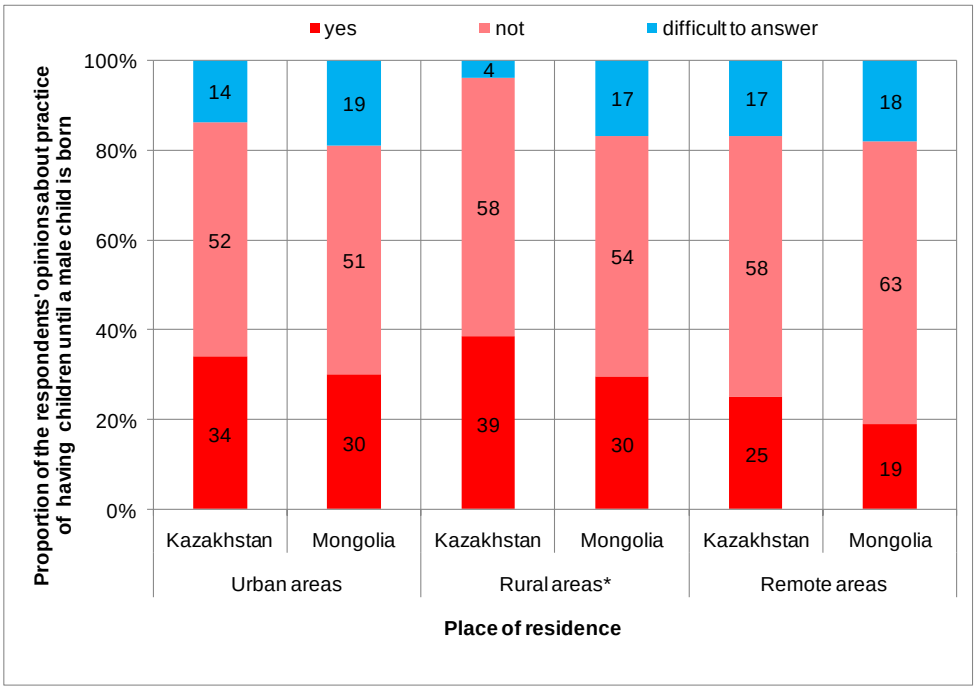
Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only in the case of the age group of 35–40 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant. Despite the country of residence and age group, respondents have almost similar opinions and consider such practice to be wrong. The opinions of 55–60 years old respondents are identical. This can be explained by the fact that repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs lived in the same environment before moving to Kazakhstan. Therefore, they share similar values. At the time of moving to Kazakhstan, they were at the end of their reproductive age.

10.1.2 The opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born according to the place of residence

The opinions of respondents about the practice of having children until a male child is born according to the place of residence is shown in Figure 29. The number of respondents who are positive about such practice is higher among the repatriates who live in rural areas (39 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in rural areas (30 %). About 34 % of urban repatriates and 30 % of ethnic Kazakhs who live in urban areas consider this practice to be acceptable. 19 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 25 % of repatriates (barracks) who live in remote areas accept this practice. As it can be noticed from the results of other analyses, female opinions which do not approve this practice prevail. The larger proportion of those is among the ethnic Kazakhs who live in

bags (63 %). Repatriates who found it difficult to answer this question constitute just 4 % in comparison with the others (14 % and 18 %).

Figure 29 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning the practice of having children until a male child is born by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)



Note: Student test for urban areas p=0.336, for rural areas p=0.032, for remote areas p=0.420
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

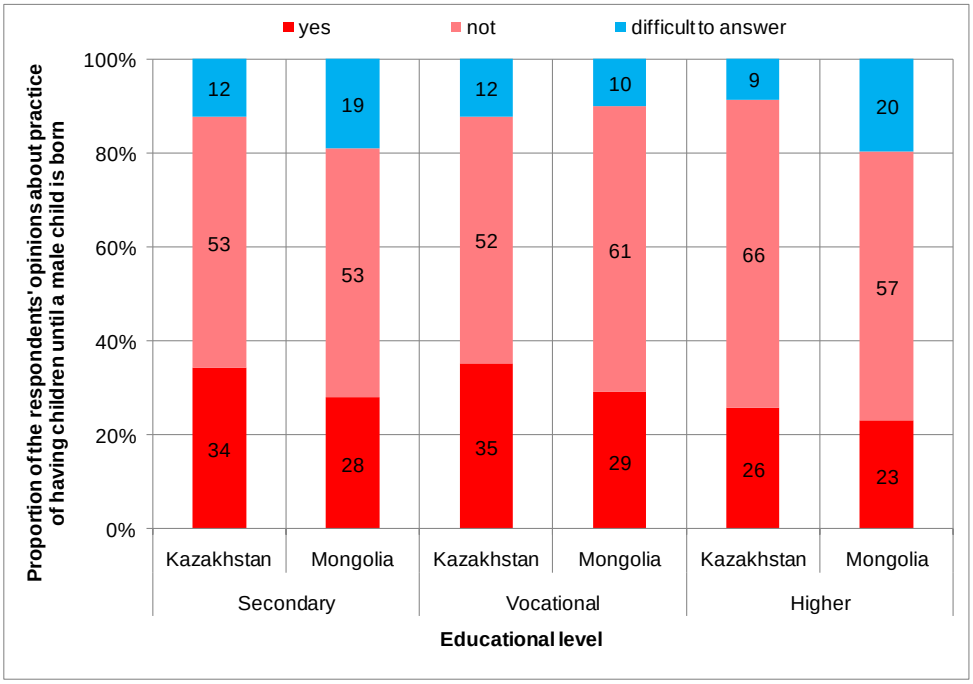
Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for rural areas. In other cases they have been found insignificant. The hypothesis stating that women who live in remote areas will be accepting such practice was not proven. Such a result was not expected among the female respondents provided that the preference of child's sex (male) was always certain in rural areas. Most of respondents from those areas are shepherds and cattle-breeders. Therefore, it is possible to talk about "the need" to have a son rather than a daughter.

10.1.3 The opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born according to educational level

Figure 30 represents the analysis of respondents' opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born according to educational level of respondents. Approximately 34 % and 35 % of repatriates with secondary and vocational education consider such practice to be acceptable. The same opinion is shared by 28 % and 29 % of ethnic Kazakhs. More people with higher education among the repatriates (26 %) than among the ethnic Kazakhs (23 %) approve of such practice. Repatriates with higher education who condemn the practice constitute 66 % while 61 % of ethnic Kazakhs with vocational education disagree with the practice. In general,

negative attitude of respondents, despite their educational level, prevails. The number of female respondents who found the question to be difficult to answer is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs with secondary and higher education (19 % and 20 %).

Figure 30 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning the practice of having children until a male child is born by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.467, for vocational education p=0.314, for higher education p=0.278
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

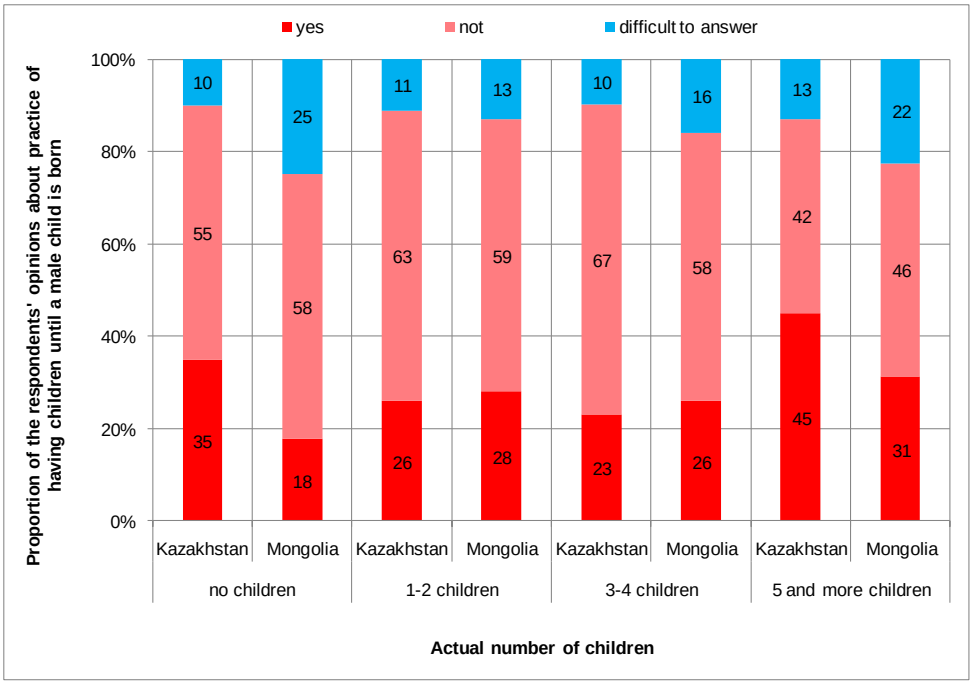
Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born within the given educational categories are statistically insignificant for all cases even on 5% level of significance. The analysis revealed that the influence of educational level on respondents' opinions about the practice in consideration is statistically insignificant. Regardless of the educational level, female opinions are mostly negative. Respondents with higher education tend to condemn the practice. Repatriates with secondary and vocational education support the practice and believe that such practice is acceptable even today.

10.1.4 The opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born according to children ever born

Figure 31 shows the analysis of respondents' opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born according to the actual number of children. The number of respondents who think that such practice is acceptable and right is higher among the childless women (35 %) and repatriates with many children (45 %) in Kazakhstan than among the childless women (18 %) and respondents with many children (31 %) who are ethnic Kazakhs living in Mongolia. More than 14 % of respondents in both countries (one to three children)

expressed their positive attitude towards this practice. A lot of people responded negatively about such practice and their number does not depend on the number of children or country of residence. About 67 % (the highest result) of repatriates who have three or four children have negative opinion about the practice. The number of respondents with large families constitutes 42 % and 46 %. The proportion of respondents who could not give the answer to this question is larger among the childless (25 %) ethnic Kazakhs and ethnic Kazakhs with large families (22 %) in comparison with the rest of the opinions (10 % and 16 %).

Figure 31 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning the practice of having children until a male child is born by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.308, for 1–2 children p=0.887, for 3–4 children p=0.101, for 5 and more children p=0.119

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the practice of having children until a male child is born within the actual number of children are statistically insignificant for all cases even on 5% level of significance. Regardless of the number of children and the country of residence negative opinion prevails. This practice is especially important for childless repatriates and those with many children. The behaviour of childless women is explainable because most of them want their first child to be a son. Their opinion is dependent on their husbands' dreams of a son.

10.2 Sex preferences

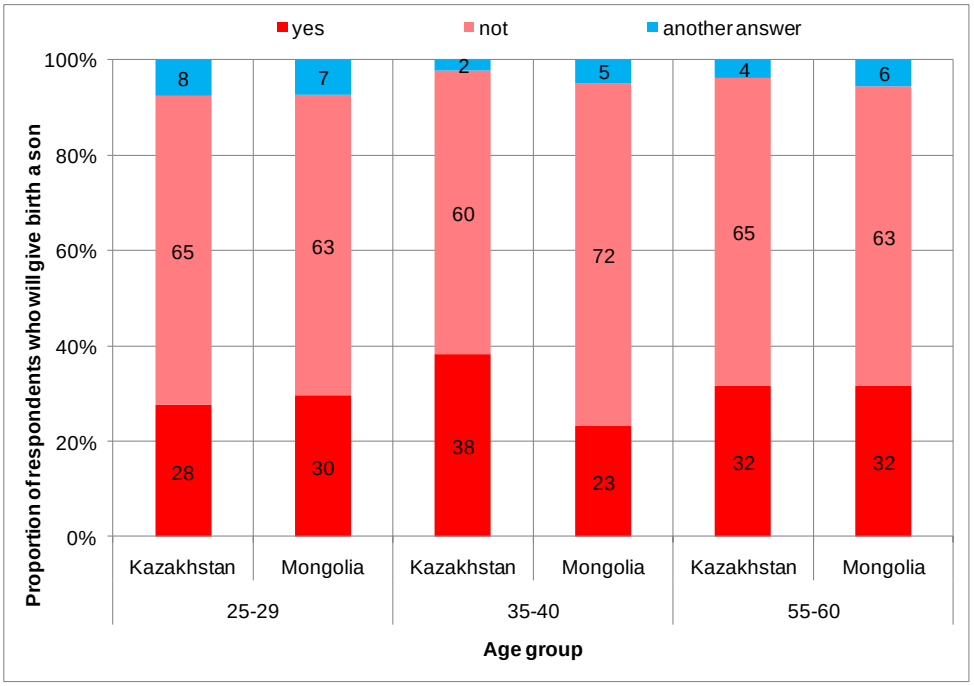
This part of the thesis examines the analysis of repatriates' and ethnic Kazakhs' child's sex preferences. It is important for Kazakhs to have a son because they will continue the family line

and will be of a great help with household duties. Thus, respondents were asked to reply if they would continue having children until they have a male child. This question will help to verify the hypothesis stating that those respondents who live in remote areas will have a strong sex preference (male) because their life style is different from those who live in urban areas. Rural areas are inhabited by the families of shepherds, cattle-breeders. The employees of the state organizations mostly live in urban areas.

10.2.1 Sex preferences according to the age groups

Figure 32 shows the analysis of the child's sex preferences according to the age of respondents. Regardless of the place of residence, the majority of respondents agreed that they are not willing to have children until they have a son. 25–29 years old respondents have similar opinions in both countries. Approximately 65 % of repatriates and 63 % of ethnic Kazakhs reacted negatively. Those with a positive reply comprise 28 % and 30 %. The opinions of women at the age of 35–40 years are a little bit different: 72 % in Mongolia and 60 % in Kazakhstan gave a negative reply. A positive reply is more frequent between repatriates (38 %) than ethnic Kazakhs (23 %). The opinions of the older groups (55–60 years old) are almost identical: 33 % are going to try for a son as long as needed; 63 % and 65 % of respondents are negative about such practice.

Figure 32 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning sex preferences by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)



Note: Student test for the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.973, for 35–40 years p=0.064, for 55–60 years p=0.882

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

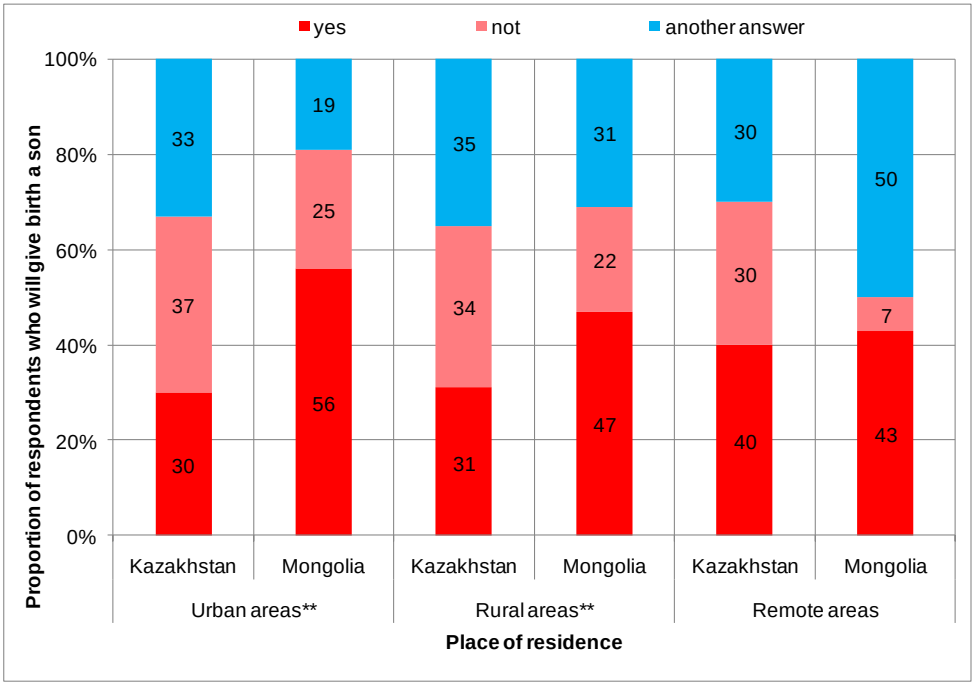
Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions concerning sex preferences within the age groups are statistically insignificant for all cases even on 5% level of

significance. The influence of respondents' age on child's sex preferences is statistically insignificant. The majority of respondents from both countries did not show strong preferences for a male child. Women at the age of 25–29 and 55–60 years have similar behaviour. However, 35–40 years old repatriates who moved to Kazakhstan being very young are more positive about such practice. It might be connected with the fear of losing a husband in the new environment which will cause additional stress to women.

10.2.2 Sex preferences according to the place of residence

Figure 33 shows the analysis of the child's sex preferences according to the place of residence. The majority of those who responded positively live in Mongolia. The analysis of the opinions of urban population in Kazakhstan shows that 37 % replied negatively, 33 % do not have strong preferences for child's sex, 30 % of respondents pointed that it is important to have a son. 56 % of the aimag population in Mongolia will continue giving birth until a male child is born. The opinions of rural inhabitants are almost similar with the difference of 1 % and 3 % (in three answers). However, 35 % of repatriates gave a different answer, 34 % of them responded negatively. The situation in Mongolian somons is as follows: 47 % of respondents answered positively, 31 % of respondents chose a different option. About 40 % and 44 % of people in remote areas who are mainly shepherds and cattle-breeders replied positively. The number of respondents who expressed their negative attitude is higher in the barracks (30 %) than in bags (7 %). The number of respondents who do not have strong preferences for child's sex is higher in Mongolian bags (50 %).

Figure 33 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning sex preferences by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.008, for rural areas p=0.008, for remote areas p=0.301
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions concerning sex preferences within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for urban and rural areas. There are those people in Mongolia (which is mostly an agrarian country) who are still ready to try for a child as many times as needed to have a son. However, for those who live in remote areas of Mongolia, child's sex is not of a secondary importance. In Kazakhstan it is important to have a son because they usually help to share household duties. It was interesting to find out that in urban areas of Mongolia people put more importance on having a son than Mongolian people in rural and remote areas. A son in a family that lives in remote area is a household help. A male child in an urban family is an additional income for the family (workforce).

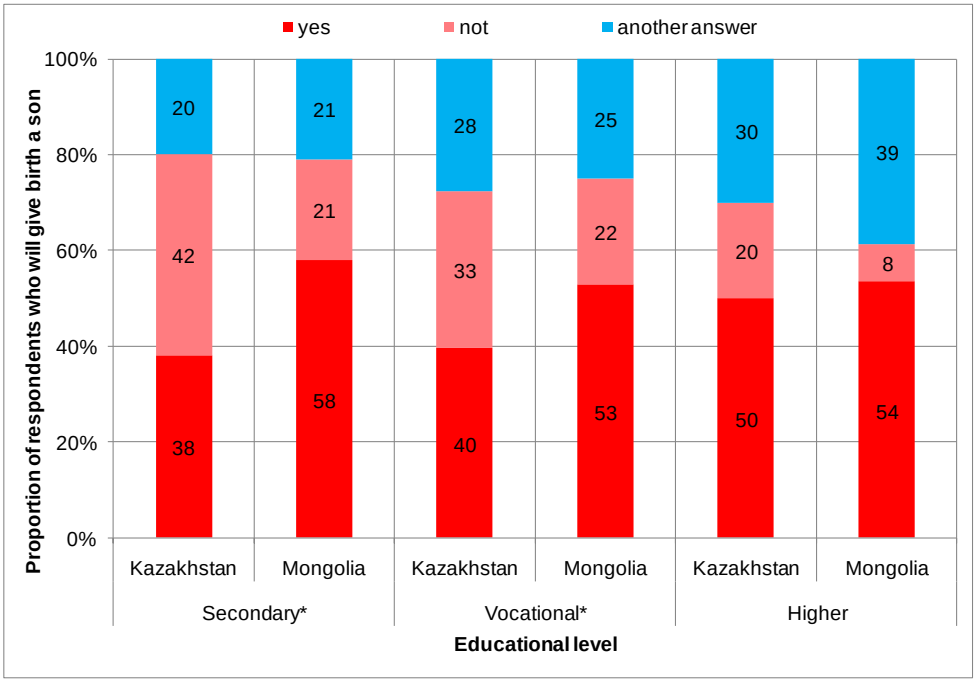
10.2.3 Sex preferences according to educational level

About 42 % of repatriates who have secondary education are not planning to have children until they get a son. The same opinion is shared by 21 % of ethnic Kazakhs. About 58 % of respondents in Mongolia answered positively about trying to get a male child. When considering the situation with women who have vocational education, we can see that 53 % of ethnic Kazakh females and 40 % of repatriates are ready to have children until getting a son. Among the repatriates in Kazakhstan 33 % do not support such practice. About 25 % of respondents in Mongolia chose a different answer stating that they do not have child's sex preferences and they fully rely on God's will. Approximately 50 % and 54 % of women with higher education answered positively about the practice. However, more women with a university degree chose a different answer in comparison with female respondents with secondary or vocational education (Figure 34).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions concerning sex preferences within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 5 % for women with secondary and vocational education. Regardless of the educational level, the majority of female respondents have a strong preference towards male children, except repatriates with secondary education.

Figure 34 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning sex preferences by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.022, for vocational education p=0.045, for higher education p=0.674
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.2.4 Sex preferences according to children ever born

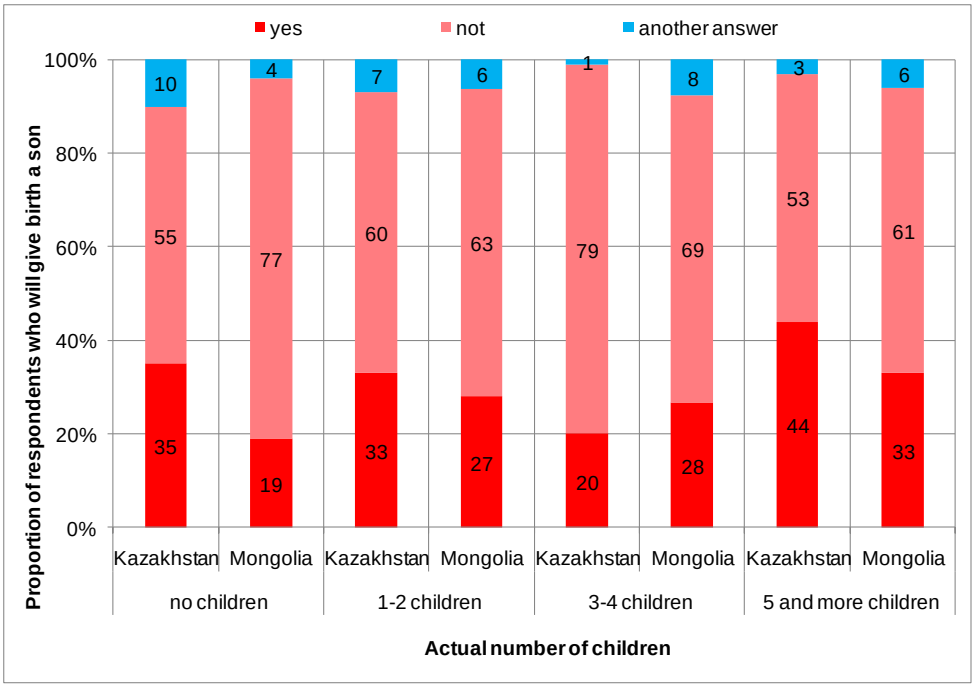
The analysis of the influence of the actual number of children on child's sex preferences of respondents is shown in Figure 35. Respondents' answers to the question about having children until giving birth to a son are as follows: as for the replies of female respondents, there are more repatriates (35 % of childless women, 33 % with one or two children, 44 % with three or four children) than ethnic Kazakhs (19 % of childless women, 27 % with one or two children, 33 % with four and five children) who showed their positive attitude towards such a policy. The exception is ethnic Kazakhs who have three or four children (28 %). Regardless of the number of children, the number of women who do not support such practice (53 % and 77 %) prevails in both countries. The number of women who gave a different answer is insignificant.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions concerning sex preferences within the actual number of children are statistically insignificant for all cases even on 5% level of significance. The majority of women, regardless of the number of children they have, do not support the practice of having children until a male child is born. However, there are more repatriates who would like to have a son. As it was mentioned before, the behaviour of repatriates in Kazakhstan and their values are different from those of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Repatriates are more traditional in many ways. It can be explained by the fact that repatriates live together in their communities and it helps them greatly to preserve cultural traditions. However, it is not possible to definitely say that the behaviour of repatriates is dependent on the influence of the society they left because ethnic Kazakhs are different in their

behaviour. Having migrated to the new society and environment, having faced many problems, repatriates began to value family relations, the importance of having a son to continue their family line.

Figure 35 – Opinions of repatriates (Kazakhstan) and ethnic Kazakhs (Mongolia) concerning sex preferences by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.281, for 1–2 children p=0. 734, for 3–4 children p=0.213, for 5 and more children p=0.389

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.3 Role of a husband in a family

In this part the role of a husband in respondents' families is examined, the analysis of divorce risks of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs is provided. Because migration is a stressful life event that may be related to subsequent marital instability. In order to compare the opinions of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs regarding the role of a husband in a family and divorce risks of respondents the following questions were asked: if a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being or just guarantor of material well-being; if for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, should a wife get a divorce or a wife may divorce him only if she cannot support the children. This allows to test the hypotheses on the role of (i) childhood socialization in the country of origin for the oldest age group of repatriates; (ii) there is no disruption in a family life due to the migration event; (iii) adaptation of family's demographic behaviour to that prevalent in the country of destination; and (iv) divorce risks and differences in behaviour across repatriate groups especially among younger generation.

10.3.1 Role of a husband in a family according to the age groups

The opinions of women regarding the role of a husband in a family and when a woman should get a divorce according to the age group of respondents are presented in Table 51. It is not reasonable to consider the age group of 17–19 years old people as most of them are mostly single. The proportion of respondents who consider that a husband is a guarantor of the material and moral well-being is larger among the repatriates at the age groups of 25–29 (56 % in Kazakhstan, and 49 % in Mongolia) and 35–40 years (53 % in Kazakhstan, and 40% in Mongolia) if taking them into account with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia, except for respondents at the age group of 55–60 years (33 % of repatriates, 43 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia). Respondents who think that a husband is just a guarantor of material well-being can be found only among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia whose number is higher at the age group of 35–40 years (17 %). When considering the opinions of respondents who think that a wife must divorce if a husband creates difficulties (drinking, bad character, etc.) in a family it can be observed: larger proportion is among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia at the age group of 35–40 years (23 %), 20 % of repatriates at the age group of 25–29 years and absolutely the same opinion is among the respondents at the age group of 55–60 years old in both countries (15 %). The number of respondents who believe that a wife must divorce if she can support children by herself is higher (48 %) among the repatriates at the oldest age group than in Mongolia (29 %) and at the age of 35–40 years (32 % of repatriates, 20 % of ethnic Kazakhs respectively). The same proportion is shown among the respondents at the age group of 25–29 years (22 % and 23 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the role of a husband in a family within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only in the case of the age group of 35–40 years old respondents and at the level of 5 % in the case of the age group of 55–60 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant. The hypotheses on adaptation of a family's demographic behaviour to that prevalent in the country of destination, divorce risks and differences in behaviour across the repatriate groups especially among younger generation are proved. For 25–29 and 35–40 years old repatriates a husband is the guarantor of financial and moral well-being of a family. There are no people among them who see a husband only as a financial supporter of a family. The younger repatriates believe that if a husband misbehaves, a woman must get a divorce. That shows how confident young women are in comparison with older female respondents. They are not ready to cope with bad attitudes of their husbands. The older respondents believe that divorce is only possible in case if a woman can support her children herself. They are not comfortable with living as a single parent in a new country. The role of a husband is important for them. They are more traditional in this way. Ethnic Kazakhs of older age are more self-confident. It might be connected with the fact that they did not have to face the problems connected with migration. The support of a husband is important for repatriates even in the situation when his behaviour is not appropriate.

Table 51– Role of a husband in a family by selected age groups of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Role of husband in a family	Age group					
	25–29		35–40***		55–60*	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
A husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being	56	49	53	40	33	43
A husband is the guarantor of material well-being	2	13	0	17	4	14
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife must necessarily divorce him	20	15	15	23	15	15
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife may divorce him only if she can support the children	22	23	32	20	48	29
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for the age groups of 25–29 years p=0.192, for 35–40 years p<0.0005, for 55–60 years p=0.020

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.3.2 Role of a husband in a family according to the place of residence

The analysis of the role of a husband in a family and when a woman should get a divorce from her husband according to the place of residence is given in Table 52. Among the respondents from urban areas there are more ethnic Kazakhs in Bayan-Ulgii aimag in Mongolia (48 %), than in Zhairem in Kazakhstan (more than a quarter of respondents are women, 40 %) who consider that a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being. If taking into account rural areas, it can be noticed that there are more respondents from somons (52 %) than from Zhairem (50 %). Among the respondents from remote areas, the majority lives in barracks (51 %) and only 21 % live in bags in Mongolia. The proportion of respondents who believe that a husband is the guarantor of material well-being live in Mongolia (10 % in urban, 17 % in rural and 23 % in remote areas). It is similar to the number of respondents with the same opinions from urban areas in both countries (18 %), if a husband creates difficulties in a family (drinking, bad character, etc.) a wife must divorce him. More respondents with that opinion live in remote areas in Kazakhstan (32 %) than in Mongolia (11%). Respondents from somons do not want to divorce if a husband creates difficulties in a family (7 %). Among the responses to the question about the role of a husband in a family and when a wife must divorce, the higher number of repatriates (41 %) who think that a wife must get a divorce if she can support children lives in urban areas compared to Mongolia (25 %). The number of respondents with that opinion is higher in Kazakhstan in rural (29 %) and remote areas (36 %) compared with Mongolia in rural (24 %) and in remote areas (23 %).

Table 52 – Role of a husband in a family by place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Role of the husband in a family	Place of residence					
	Urban areas*		Rural areas**		Remote areas***	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
A husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being	40	48	50	52	51	21
A husband is the guarantor of material well-being	1	10	3	17	1	23
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife must necessarily divorce him	18	18	18	7	11	32
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife may divorce him only if she can support the children	41	25	29	24	36	23
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.038, for rural areas p=0.012, for remote areas p<0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the role of a husband in a family within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for women in remote areas, at the level of 1 % for women in rural areas and at the level of 5 % for women in urban areas. For respondents who live in urban areas a husband is the guarantor of financial and moral well-being in their families. However, the number of women who think that a woman must get a divorce even if she cannot support her family herself is higher in Zhairem. Ethnic Kazakhs who live in bags tend to consider their husbands as the guarantors of financial and moral well-being less frequently. They believe that a woman has to get a divorce if his behaviour is inappropriate. It can be concluded that respondents who live in bags are more exposed to the misbehaviour of their husbands. Regardless of the place of residence, repatriates from Kazakhstan think that a woman still has to get a divorce even if she cannot support her children herself.

10.3.3 Role of a husband in a family according to educational level

The analysis of the role of a husband in a family and when a woman should get a divorce from her husband according to the place of residence is given in Table 53. The proportion of respondents who think that a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being is larger among the women with higher education in Kazakhstan 58 % than in Mongolia 53 %. Fewer ethnic Kazakhs (34 %) who had secondary education considered that a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being compared to repatriates (45 %). A husband is the guarantor of the material well-being only for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia whose number is higher among the women with secondary education 18 %, the same number of 11 % is among the respondents with vocational and higher education. The opinions of respondents who think that women must divorce if a husband creates difficulties in the family

like drinking, bad character are showed that among the respondents with secondary education their number is higher in Mongolia 23 % in comparison with Kazakhstan, and the opposite situation is among the respondents with vocational education (23 % in Kazakhstan, and 16 % in Mongolia). The number of respondents who graduated from universities is insignificant. The opinions of respondents, if for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife may divorce him only if she can support the children, are as follows: the same number is among the repatriates with secondary and higher education (37 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs (25 % and 27 %).

Table 53 – Role of a husband in a family by attained level of education, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Role of the husband in a family	Educational level					
	Secondary***		Vocational		Higher	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
A husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being	45	34	42	54	58	53
A husband is the guarantor of material well-being	2	18	3	11	0	11
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife must necessarily divorce him	16	23	23	16	6	9
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife may divorce him only if she can support the children	37	25	32	19	37	27
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.001, for vocational p=0.105, for higher p=0.074
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the role of a husband in a family within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only for women with secondary education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5% level of significance. The majority of repatriates believe that a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being. There is an insignificant number of respondents who have an opinion that husbands are mainly financial supporters in the family. The role of husbands in a family of respondents with lower education is more important than in a family of university graduates.

10.3.4 Role of a husband in a family according to children ever born

The analysis of the role of a husband in a family and when a woman should get a divorce from her husband according to the actual number of children is presented in Table 54. Despite the number of children respondents have, they believe that a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being in both countries. This opinion prevails among the childless people (62 %) and repatriates who have five and more children (48 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs (43 % and 33 % respectively). The number of repatriates who have one or

two children and those who have three or four children is the same (44 %). However, the share of respondents who considered that a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs who have one or two children (52 %). A husband is the guarantor of material well-being only for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia, especially for childless women (29 %). Respondents who consider that a wife must divorce if a husband creates difficulties in the family is higher among the childless repatriates (39 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (7 %). The same number is among those who have three or four children (19 %) and the number of repatriates with one or two (17 %) and with five and more children (17 %) is lower than the number of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (21 % and 19 %). Some of respondents, especially repatriates in Kazakhstan, think that a wife must divorce even if she is not able to support the children by herself. The same number of women who have already given birth to the children (37 %) share this opinion.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the role of a husband in a family within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women with one or two children and at the level of 5 % for childless women and women with five and more children. The role of a husband in repatriate families is important; there is also an insignificant number of women who consider their husbands to be just the guarantors of financial well-being. Every repatriate thinks that a husband is the guarantor of moral well-being in the family as well. This can be explained by the fact that repatriates are more traditional.

Table 54 – Role of a husband in a family by number of children ever born, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), 2009 (%)

Role of the husband in a family	Number of children							
	No children*		1–2 children**		3–4 children**		5 and more children*	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
A husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being	62	43	44	52	44	44	48	33
A husband is the guarantor of material well-being	0	29	2	14	0	15	7	12
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife must necessarily divorce him	31	7	17	21	19	19	11	19
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife may divorce him only if she can support the children	0	21	37	12	37	22	38	33
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for no children p=0.025, for 1–2 children p=0.013, for 3–4 children p=0.004, for 5 and more children p=0.038

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.3.5 Role of a husband in a family according to marital status

The analysis of the role of a husband in a family and when a woman should get a divorce from her husband according to marital status of respondents is presented in Table 55. The opinions of respondents who think that a husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being is dominant among the repatriates (55 % among the single women, and 50 % among the women without partners) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (45 % and 44 % respectively). Approximately the same proportion can be found among married women in both countries (41 % and 42 %). A husband is the guarantor of the material well-being only for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The number of respondents who think that women must get a divorce if a husband creates difficulties in a family is higher in Mongolia (22 % among women without partners, and 18 % among married women) in comparison with Kazakhstan (6 % and 14 % respectively), expect for single repatriates (20 %). The number of respondents who think that if for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family a wife may divorce him only if she can support children is higher among the repatriates (43 % of married women, and 38 % of women without partners) when comparing with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (25 % and 17 % respectively). The same number can be found among the single women (24 %).

Table 55 – Role of a husband in a family by marital status, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), 2009 (%)

Role of the husband in a family	Marital status					
	Single women*		Married women***		Women without partner	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
A husband is the guarantor of the material and moral well-being	55	45	41	42	50	44
A husband is the guarantor of material well-being	1	13	2	15	6	17
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife must necessarily divorce him	20	18	14	18	6	22
If for any reason (drinking, bad character, etc.) a husband creates difficulties in the family, a wife may divorce him only if she can support the children	24	24	43	25	38	17
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for single women p=0.040, for married p<0.0005, for without partner p=0.296
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the opinions about the role of a husband in a family within marital status are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % only for married women and at the level of 5 % only for single women. Opinions of married repatriates differ from the views of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Among them there are no women who think that the role of a husband in the family should be limited just to financial

support. All respondents did not support the idea of a divorce. However, it is acceptable only when a woman is confident, stable and able to support the children.

10.4 Preventing factors that influence the decision of having more children

10.4.1 Preventing factors according to the age groups

Tables 56a and 56b show the analysis of preventing factors for having more children by the age group of respondents. Despite the fact that respondents at the age group of 17–19 years are childless and single, all of them answered the question. In order to evaluate the attitude of potentially young mothers in the future regarding this question this group of respondents was included in the analysis. So, these groups of respondents considered that the following five factors prevent women from having more children: the respondent's job, unemployed husband, poor health, excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse and no confidence in the future. The first preventing factor was mentioned more frequently by repatriates (74 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (44 %). Among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia 35 % mentioned the factor of unemployed husband, 32 % mentioned no confidence in the future, 29 % chose excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse and 24 % mentioned poor health conditions. For ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 25–29 years all seven factors are preventing from having more children and the number of those (65 % mentioned the respondent's job, 53 % chose excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse, 51 % selected housing conditions, 49 % mentioned unemployed husband, 34 % and 35 % chose no confidence in the future and financial difficulties and 25 % mentioned poor health conditions) is higher than among the repatriates in Kazakhstan. For repatriates preventing factors are the respondent's job (55 %) and unemployed husband (32 %). If taking into account the opinions of 35–40 years old women, it can be seen that 56 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 37 % of repatriates reported the respondent's job to be preventing factor. The number of respondents in Mongolia who think that unemployed husbands prevent women from having more children is higher in Mongolia (42 %) than in Kazakhstan (21 %). Such factors as housing conditions (58 %), excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse (50 %) and enough children (23 %) are mentioned as preventing factors only by ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Among the people at the age of 55–60 years all seven preventing factors from having more children (except for the two factors including poor health and old age) are mentioned by ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Preventing factors such as the respondent's job (72 %), unemployed husband (71 %), financial difficulties and poor health (31 % and 32 %), and finally elderly age (35 %) are mentioned more frequently among the repatriates in Kazakhstan in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs (69 % mentioned respondent's job, 54 % mentioned unemployed husband, 23 % mentioned financial difficulties). However, housing conditions (63 %) is one the most popular problem preventing from having children in Mongolia. Approximately the same number of those who think that excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse (56 %) and enough children (54 % and 56 %) are preventing factors can be found in both countries.

Table 56a – Preventing factors by selected age groups of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Problems	Age group								Pearson	
	17–19				25–29					
	KZ	KZ	MG	MG	KZ	KZ	MG	MG		
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	17–19	25–29
Respondent's job**	27	74	56	44	45	55	35	65	0.007	0.343
Unemployed husband	77	23	65	35	68	32	51	49	0.315	0.121
Housing conditions***	99	1	78	22	91	9	49	51	0.001	0.0005
Financial difficulties**/***	99	1	82	18	93	7	65	35	0.002	0.001
Poor health **/*	98	2	76	24	91	9	76	25	0.002	0.037
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse***	98	2	71	29	84	16	47	53	0.001	0.001
No confidence in the future***	98	2	68	32	81	19	66	34	0.001	0.145

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 56b – Preventing factors by selected age groups of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Problems	Age group								Pearson	
	35–40				55–60					
	KZ	KZ	MG	MG	KZ	KZ	MG	MG		
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	35–40	55–60
Respondent's job	63	37	44	56	28	72	31	69	0.084	0.227
Unemployed husband*	80	21	58	42	30	71	46	54	0.044	0.620
Housing conditions***/*	89	11	42	58	55	45	37	63	0.0005	0.039
Financial difficulties*	95	5	83	17	68	32	77	23	0.038	0.973
Poor health	86	14	87	13	69	31	98	2	0.878	0.112
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse***	89	11	50	50	44	56	44	56	0.001	0.096
Enough children	89	11	77	23	47	54	44	56	0.190	0.853
Elderly age*	0	0	0	0	65	35	94	6	0.035	0.400

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to preventing factors for having more children such as financial difficulties, poor health and respondents' job within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % in the case of the age group of 17–19 years old respondents and housing problems, excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse and no confidence in the future at the level of 0.1 %. Statistically significant differences of housing conditions, financial difficulties and alcohol consumption of a spouse at the level of 0.1 % in the case of the age group of 25–29 years old respondents and poor health at the level of 5 %. In the case of the age group of 35–40 years old respondents, excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse and housing conditions are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % and financial difficulties, unemployed husband and elderly age at the level of 5 %. In case of the age group of

55–60 years old respondents only housing conditions are statistically significant at the level of 5 %. Despite the age group of respondents, the most negatively influencing factors on having more children are housing conditions of a family and excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse. The most negative factor in Mongolia is financial instability in a family among the potential group of mothers at the age of 25–29 years. It can be explained by the fact that nowadays the government does not support families with children in Mongolia, poverty and unemployment are widespread and etc.

10.4.2 Preventing factors according to the place of residence

The analysis of preventing factors to have children by the place of residence is represented in Tables 57a and 57b. The main aforementioned problem is the respondent's job despite the place of residence in both countries. Urban population in Kazakhstan considered the following factors as preventing: the respondent's job (51 %), elderly age (50 %), unemployed husband (35 %) and excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse (21 %). However, for urban population in Mongolia there are seven preventing factors (53 % and 54 %–respondent's job, unemployed husband and excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse, 47 %–housing conditions, 33 %–enough children, 27 % and 28 %–financial difficulties and poor health) except the elderly age factor. For rural population of both countries there are only two negative factors. The first factor is the respondent's job and the number of people who agree with this is higher in Kazakhstan (64 %) than in Mongolia (50 %). The second factor which concerns repatriates is unemployed husband (29 %). Excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse (27 %) is the second key factor for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. As for the problems of respondents from remote areas, there are three interfering problems such as the respondent's job (51 %), elderly age (37 %) and unemployed husband (21 %) for repatriates in Kazakhstan. All eight factors are almost equally negative for the people who live in Mongolian bags. The biggest problems for them are respondent's job (63 %), excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse (61 %), housing conditions (54 %), unemployed husband (47 %) and elderly age (37%). However, only a quarter of them had financial difficulties, health problems and enough children.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to preventing factors for having more children such as excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for urban areas and housing problems at the level of 0.1 %. Statistically significant differences at the level of 5 % for rural areas were unemployed husband and alcohol consumption of a spouse. For remote areas at the level of 1 % were unemployed husband and at the level of 0.1 % were housing conditions, financial difficulties and excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse. As can be seen from the analysis, respondents from Mongolia are acute with housing conditions as it is a major problem that prevents them from having more children. Housing conditions of respondents who live in remote areas in Mongolia are under any reasonable standards of living. Respondents from bags live in jurtas in the mountains, near the rivers without any sanitary conditions, enough living space, medical and food points and etc. The past practice for the people from remote areas was to have children as they helped them to keep the household. Nowadays, time has changed, the

influence of mass media is considerable, people are more aware of their problems. They also have a chance to change their lives by moving to Kazakhstan. It should be noted that the majority of people who moved from Mongolia used to live in bags and were cattle-breeders. Another factor that was mentioned quite frequently is excessive consumption of alcohol by a spouse. It can be explained by the fact that life in remote areas is not diverse, they graze cattle all day long. The educational level of respondents should be taken into consideration as well.

Table 57a – Preventing factors by place of residence of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Problems	Place of residence								Pearson	
	Urban areas				Rural areas					
	KZ	KZ	MG	MG	KZ	KZ	MG	MG		
	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	Urban	Rural
Respondent's job	49	51	46	54	36	64	50	50	0.808	0.190
Unemployed husband*	65	35	47	53	71	29	93	7	0.123	0.0 26
Housing conditions***	91	9	53	47	92	8	83	17	0.0005	0.226
Financial difficulties**	91	9	72	28	98	2	92	8	0.008	0.136
Poor health	86	14	73	27	92	8	83	17	0.109	0.151
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse**/*	79	21	46	54	92	8	73	27	0.004	0.035
Enough children	82	18	67	33	88	12	84	16	0.156	0.655
Elderly age	50	50	100	0	100	0	100	0	0.361	0.376

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 57b – Preventing factors by place of residence of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Problems	Place of residence				Pearson
	Remote areas				
	KZ	KZ	MG	MG	
	no	yes	no	yes	Remote
Respondent's job	49	51	37	63	0.222
Unemployed husband**	79	21	53	47	0.007
Housing conditions***	90	10	46	54	0.0005
Financial difficulties***	89	11	76	24	0.0005
Poor health	89	11	79	21	0.692
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse***	88	12	39	61	0.0005
Enough children	86	14	77	23	0.350
Elderly age	63	37	63	37	-

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.4.3 Preventing factors according to educational level

The analysis of preventing factors by educational level of respondents is represented in Tables 58a and 58b. For respondents with secondary education the most negatively influencing factor is the respondent's job, for 51 % of repatriates and 62 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The

number of respondents who mentioned unemployed husband (30 %) and elderly age (50 %) as preventing factors is higher in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia (22 %). Excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse was frequently mentioned by ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (45 %). The problem of housing conditions is more wide-spread among the ethnic Kazakhs (33 %). For women with vocational education the most preventing factor is the respondent's job in both countries, 45 % among the repatriates and 53 % among the ethnic Kazakhs. All the other preventing problems are acute especially among the ethnic Kazakh women in Mongolia. The proportions of influencing factors for them are excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse (62 %), housing conditions (54 %) and poor health (25 %). Elderly age is problematic only for repatriates (60 %). For respondents with higher education the most preventing problem is the respondent's work which is quite widespread in both countries (54 % in Mongolia, 44 % in Kazakhstan). The factor as unemployed husband is mentioned more often in Mongolia (77 %) than in Kazakhstan (23 %). Other preventing factors that have a negative influence on ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia: about 61 % of excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse, 65 % of housing conditions, 47 % of financial difficulties, and 42 % of poor health. However, enough children are a barrier only for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (41 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to preventing factors for having more children such as housing conditions and excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 5 % for women with secondary education. Statistically significant differences at the level of 5 % for women with vocational education were excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse. In case of higher education, unemployed husband, housing conditions, financial difficulties and excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % and poor health at the level of 1 %.

Table 58a – Preventing factors by attained level of education of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample,2009 (%)

Problems	Educational level								Pearson	
	Secondary				Vocational					
	KZ no	KZ yes	MG no	MG yes	KZ no	KZ yes	MG no	MG yes	Second	Voc-l
Respondent's job	49	51	38	62	55	45	47	53	0.288	0.613
Unemployed husband	70	30	78	22	65	35	58	42	0.397	0.689
Housing conditions*	87	13	67	33	75	25	46	54	0.019	0.063
Financial difficulties	85	15	88	12	90	10	81	19	0.598	0.353
Poor health	85	15	86	14	79	21	75	25	0.510	0.100
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse*	78	22	55	45	76	24	38	62	0.034	0.050
Enough children	77	23	81	19	82	18	87	13	0.681	0.694
Elderly age	50	50	0	0	40	60	0	0	0	0

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 58b – Preventing factors by attained level of education of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample,2009 (%)

Problems	Educational level				Pearson
	Higher				
	KZ	KZ	MG	MG	Higher
	no	yes	no	yes	
Respondent's job	56	44	46	54	0.397
Unemployed husband***	77	23	23	77	0.0005
Housing conditions***	96	4	35	65	0.0005
Financial difficulties***	96	4	53	47	0.0005
Poor health**	94	6	68	32	0.006
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse****	90	10	39	61	0.0005
Enough children	81	19	59	41	0.063
Elderly age	100	0	100	0	0.464

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.4.4 Preventing factors according to children ever born

Tables 59a and 59b present the analysis of negatively influencing factors by the actual number of respondent's children. For childless women the most preventing factor is the respondent's job in both countries comprising 65 % among the repatriates and 53 % among the ethnic Kazakhs. The number of women acute with unemployment of their husbands is 48 % in Mongolia and 24 % in Kazakhstan. All other preventing problems are acute especially among ethnic childless women in Mongolia, namely, 46 % of excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse, 33 % of housing conditions and enough children, 29 % of poor health and 22 % of financial difficulties in the family. For respondents with one or two children the most preventing problem is the respondent's job in both countries (58 % in Mongolia, 54 % in Kazakhstan). Unemployed husband is a major concern for people in Mongolia (34 %) compared to Kazakhstan. An interesting point that more than a quarter of women with a small number of children think they have enough children in both countries. Preventing factors such as excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse (41 %), housing conditions (35 %), financial difficulties (26 %) and poor health are problematic only for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The four major problems among the repatriates with three or four children are the respondent's job (47 %), elderly age (43 %), unemployed husband (27 %), and excessive alcohol consumption by a spouse (20 %). The same number of ethnic Kazakhs consider the respondent's job and housing conditions (60 %) as preventing factors. The second major problem is excessive alcohol consumption (54 %). Approximately the same number of respondents with five and more children primarily consider the respondent's job (37 % and 38 %) and unemployed husband (40 % and 41 %) as major problems. Housing conditions (28 %) and excessive alcohol consumption (56 %) are preventing factors which influence the decision of ethnic Kazakhs to have more children. About 45 % of repatriates said they had enough children.

Table 59a – Preventing factors by number of children ever born, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Problems	Number of children								Pearson	
	No children				1–2 children					
	KZ no	KZ yes	MG no	MG yes	KZ no	KZ yes	MG no	MG yes	No children	1–2 children
Respondent's job	34	65	47	53	46	54	42	58	0.169	0.731
Unemployed husband**	76	24	52	48	71	29	66	34	0.014	0.679
Housing conditions***	97	3	67	33	83	17	65	35	0.0005	0.090
Financial difficulties***	98	2	78	22	87	13	74	26	0.0005	0.189
Poor health***	96	4	71	29	88	12	78	22	0.0005	0.270
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse***	96	4	54	46	85	15	59	41	0.0005	0.049
Enough children ***	94	6	67	33	74	26	80	20	0.001	0.606
Elderly age	0	0	0	0	67	33	0	0	0	0

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Table 59b – Preventing factors by number of children ever born, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Problems	Number of children								Pearson	
	3–4 children				5 and more children					
	KZ no	KZ yes	MG no	MG yes	KZ no	KZ yes	MG no	MG yes	3–4 children	5 and more children
Respondent's job	53	47	40	60	63	37	62	38	0.262	0.901
Unemployed husband	73	27	56	44	60	40	59	41	0.121	0.558
Housing conditions***	86	14	40	60	85	15	71	28	0.0005	0.320
Financial difficulties*	91	9	76	24	85	15	91	9	0.049	0.575
Poor health	81	19	84	16	82	18	87	13	0.740	0.314
Excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse	80	20	46	54	56	44	44	56	0.006	0.637
Enough children *	85	15	70	30	55	45	85	15	0.106	0.021
Elderly age	57	43	100	0	100	0	100	0	0.408	0

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to preventing factors for having more children such as housing conditions, financial difficulties, poor health, excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for childless women and preventing factor of unemployed husband at the level of 1 %. Among the women with one or two children statistically significant difference at the level of 5 % was only for excessive alcohol consumption of a spouse. Statistically significant difference among the women with three or four children at the level of 0.1 % was for housing conditions and financial difficulties at the level of 5 %. In case of women with five and more children, such preventing factor as enough children is statistically significant at the level of 5 %.

An interesting point that more than a quarter of childless women in Mongolia answered they have enough children. Childless ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are influenced by all the factors including having enough children already. These answers can be justified by their possible decision not to have children altogether. The respondent's job is the decisive factor for childless repatriates in Kazakhstan.

10.5 Attitudes towards abortion

Abortion is considered to be one of the major problems worldwide. The reasons for abortion are different. For example: unwilling pregnancy, the postponement of a pregnancy, economical reasons or a child of unmarried couple, gender preferences, sex-selective abortion, neglect of female children and health reasons. To measure attitudes towards abortion of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia we ask several questions to test under which conditions the respondent views abortion as an acceptable.

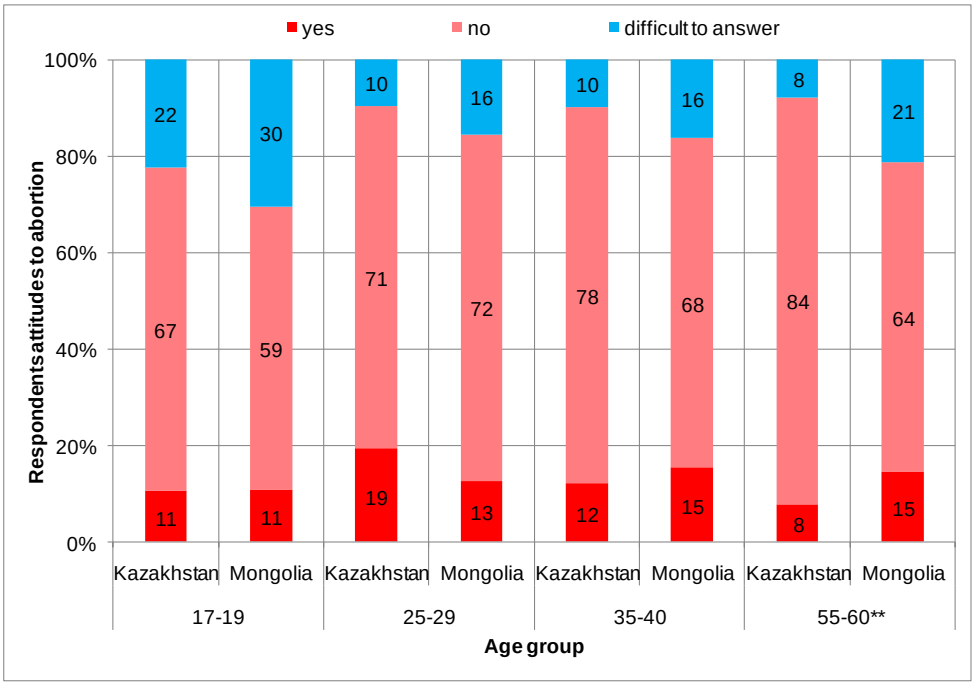
10.5.1 Attitudes towards abortion according to the age groups

Figure 36 represents the analysis of respondents' attitudes towards abortion according to their age group. Regardless of their age, all respondents showed negative attitude towards abortion. The number of respondents who reacted negatively is especially high among the repatriates at the age of 55–60 years (84 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (64 %). The number of respondents who believe that abortion is acceptable is similar among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia for the age groups of 35–40 and 55–60 years (15 %). Among the young people at the age of 17–19 years 11 % showed positive attitude in both countries. The number of respondents who found it difficult to answer the question is higher among the young people at the age of 17–19 years old (30 % in Mongolia and 22 % in Kazakhstan).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to attitudes towards abortion within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only in the case of the age group of 55–60 years old respondents. In other cases they have been found insignificant. Most of the respondents showed negative attitude towards abortion. However, there is a certain percentage of women among the ethnic Kazakhs at the age of 55–60 years and 25–29 years old repatriates who consider abortion to be acceptable.

Figure 36 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by selected age groups, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for the age groups of 17–19 years p=0.576, for 25–29 years p=0.351, for 35–40 years p=0.282, for 55–60 years p=0.011

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

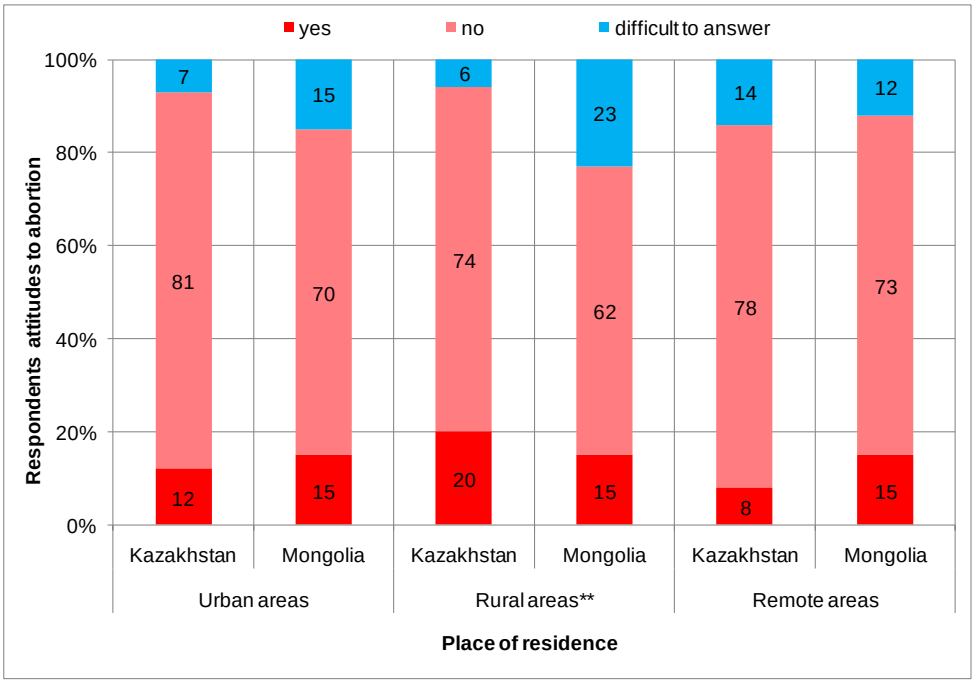
10.5.2 Attitudes towards abortion according to the place of residence

The analysis of how the place of residence influences female respondents' opinions about abortion is shown in Figure 37. Negative attitude prevails: 81 % of urban female repatriates and 78 % of repatriates from remote areas as well as 70 % and 73 % of ethnic Kazakhs respectively consider abortion to be unacceptable. The number of respondents with negative attitude towards abortion is a little bit lower in rural areas: 74 % for Kazakhstan and 62 % for Mongolia. The number of women with positive attitude towards abortion is higher and is similar in both countries despite the place of residence–15 % among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia except for 20 % of repatriates from rural areas. The number of respondents who had difficulties with giving the answer is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs from somons (23 %); in urban areas there are 15 % of people with such an opinion. The number of repatriates from Kazakhstan is 6 % and 7 % for rural and urban population except for 14 % of respondents who live in barracks.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to attitudes towards abortion within the the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for rural areas. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5 % level of significance. Regardless of the place of residence, most of the female respondents share the opinion that abortion is not acceptable under any circumstances. However, there is an insignificant number of women from rural areas who can consider the possibility of having an abortion.

Figure 37 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.062, for rural areas p=0.009, for remote areas p=0.404
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

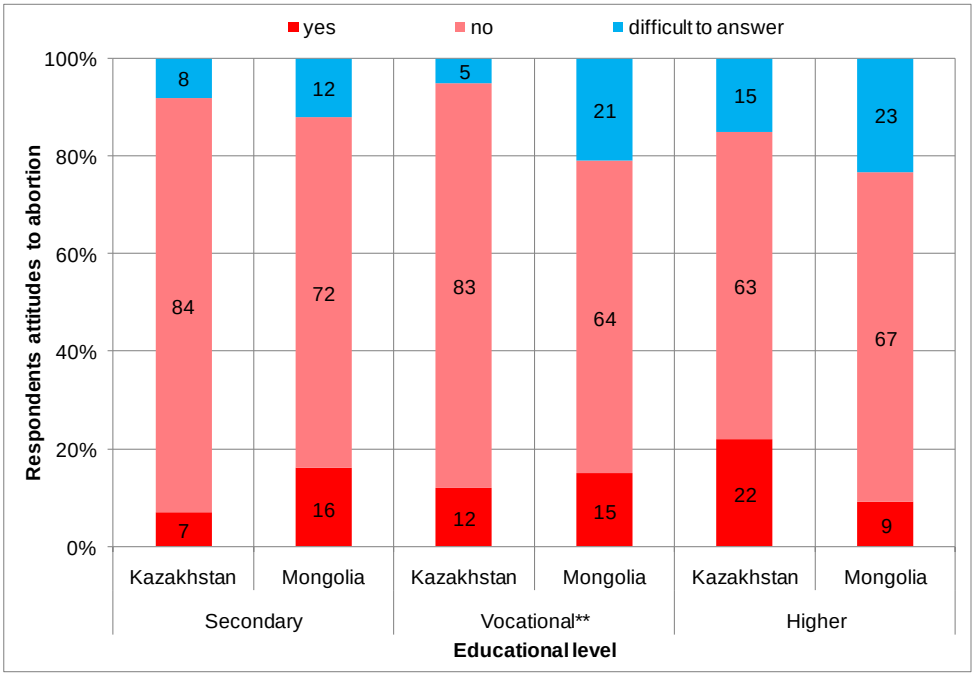
10.5.3 Attitudes towards abortion according to educational level

Figure 38 shows the analysis of how the educational level of women influences their attitudes towards abortion. Negative opinion prevails and was more frequently shared by repatriates with secondary and vocational education (83 % and 84 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs (72 % with secondary and 64 % with vocational education). Taking into account women with higher education we can see that 67 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 63 % of repatriates showed negative attitude towards abortion; the number of female respondents who accept abortion is higher among the repatriates (22 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs (9 %). The exception are women with secondary (16 %) and vocational (15 %) education. More than a quarter of ethnic Kazakh respondents with vocational and higher education did not give any answer.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to attitudes towards abortion within the the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 1 % only for women with vocational education. In other cases they have been found insignificant even on 5 % level of significance. Regardless of the educational level, negative opinion prevails. There is a certain number of respondents with higher education who showed positive attitude towards abortion.

Figure 38 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.073, for vocational education p=0.008, for higher education p=0.083
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

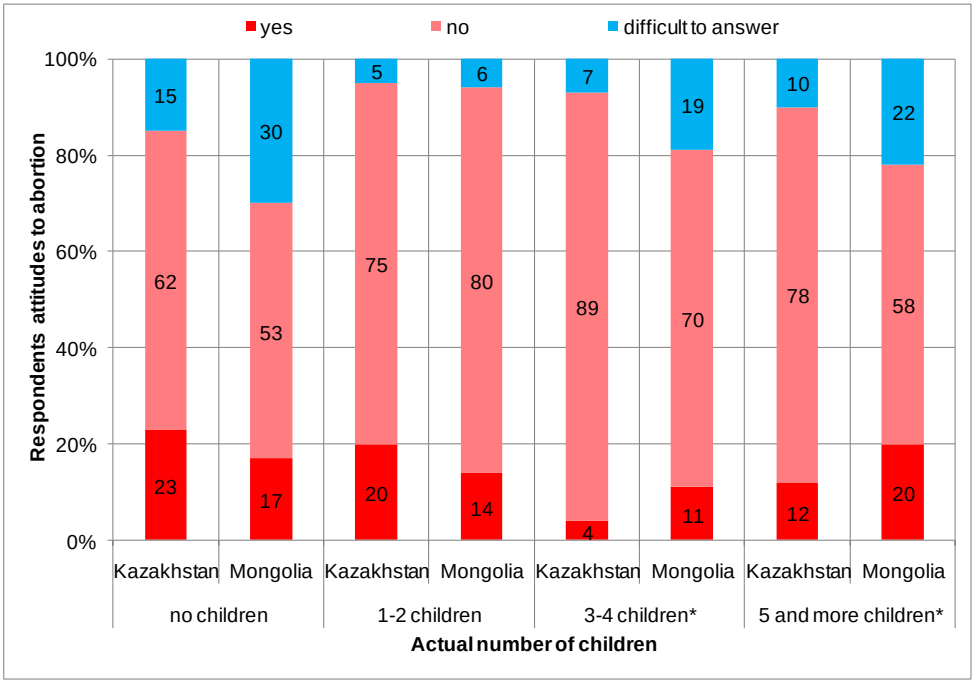
10.5.4 Attitudes towards abortion according to children ever born

Figure 39 shows the analysis of respondents' attitudes towards abortion by the actual number of children in the family. The number of women who consider that abortion is not allowed is higher among the childless women in Kazakhstan (62 %) than in Mongolia (53 %). For respondents with children the statistics is the following: among the women with one or two children (75 % in Kazakhstan, 80 % in Mongolia), among the women with three or four children (89 % in Kazakhstan, 70 % in Mongolia) and among the women with five and more children (78 % in Kazakhstan, 58 % in Mongolia). The number of women with positive attitude towards abortion is higher among the childless women (23 %) and women with one or two children (20 %) in Kazakhstan except for women who have three or four children (4 %) and five and more children (12 %). For Mongolia statistics shows only 17 % for childless women, 14 % for women with one or two children, three or four children–11 % and five and more children–20 %. The number of women who considered this question to be difficult to answer is higher among the childless women (30 %) and women with many children (22 %) in Mongolia.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to attitudes towards abortion within the the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only for women with three or four and with five and more children. In other cases they have been found insignificant. Despite the actual number of children, negative attitude towards abortion prevails. However, reproductive behaviour of childless women and women with one or two children has started to change in Kazakhstan.

Figure 39 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.311, for 1–2 children p=0.690, for 3–4 children p=0.016, for 5 and more children p=0.033

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.6 Advice to unmarried pregnant women

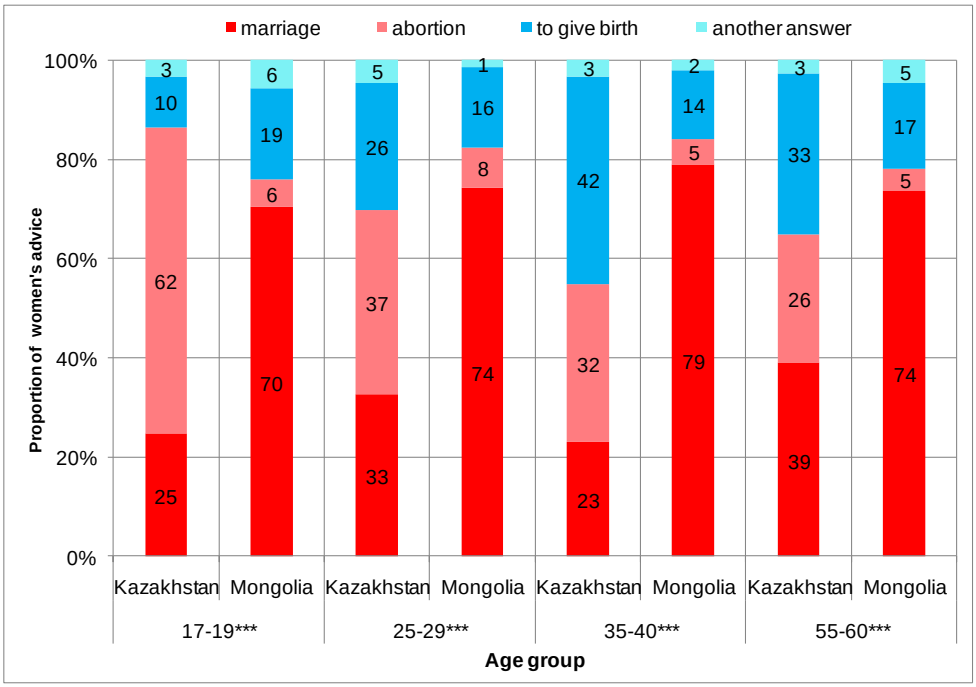
To prove the hypotheses that a new society influences repatriates and reproductive behaviour of repatriates, respondents were asked the following question: "What would you advice to a single pregnant woman and her parents?"

10.6.1 Advice according to the age groups

Figure 40 shows the analysis of women's advice according to the age groups. The number of women who advice single pregnant woman to have an abortion is quite high (for 17–19 years olds: 62 % of repatriates and 6 % of ethnic Kazakhs; for 25–29 years olds: 37 % of repatriates and 8 % of ethnic Kazakhs; for 35–40 years olds: 32 % of repatriates and 5 % of ethnic Kazakhs; for 55–60 years old group: 26 % of repatriates and 5 % of ethnic Kazakhs). The situation in Mongolia is as follows: women there believe that a single pregnant woman must press to get married (for 17–19 years olds: 70 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 25 % of repatriates; for 25–29 years olds: 74 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 33 % of repatriates; for 35–40 years olds: 79 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 23 % of repatriates; for 55–60 years old group: 74 % of ethnic Kazakhs and 39 % of repatriates). The number of respondents who think that a single pregnant woman has to give birth to a child and bring him/her up without a husband is higher among the older age groups in Kazakhstan (for 25–29 years olds: 26 %; for 35–40 years olds: 42 %; for 55–60 years olds: 33 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (16 %, 14 % and 17 % respectively) except for the second generation of migrants at the age of 17–19 years in

Kazakhstan (10 % of repatriates, 19 % of ethnic Kazakhs). The number of respondents who chose such answer as different advice is insignificant (1 % and 6 %).

Figure 40 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by selected age group, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for the age groups of 17–19 years p<0.0005, for 25–29 years p<0.0005, for 35–40 years p<0.0005, for 55–60 years p<0.0005

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

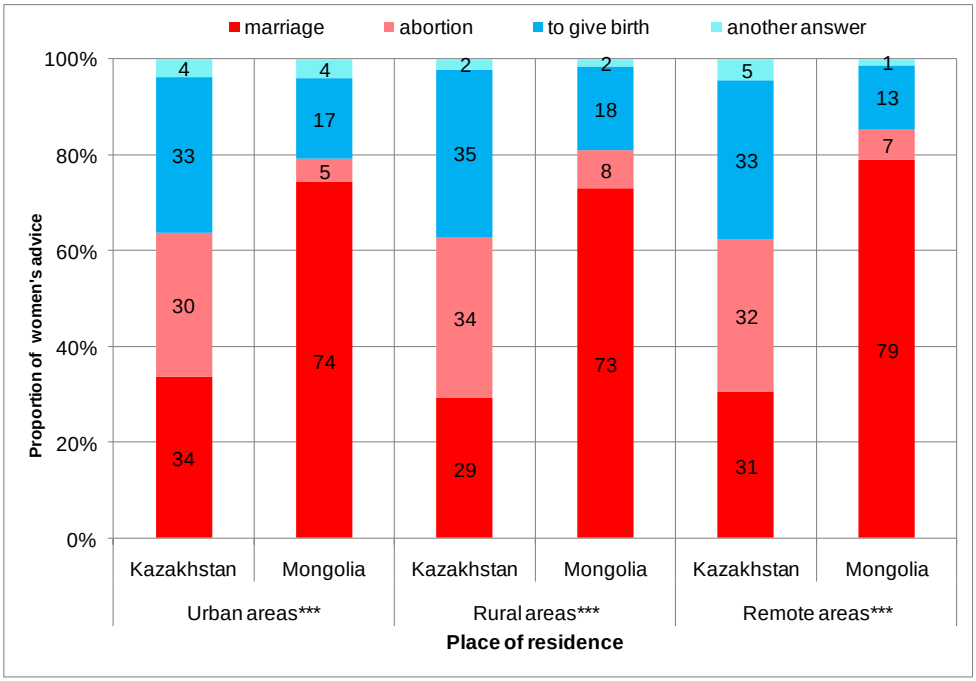
Differences among the distributions of women's advice to single pregnant women within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. The analysis revealed that there is a considerable difference between repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in this situation. Despite the age, Kazakh repatriates are more open-minded and they advice to have an abortion. Ethnic Kazakhs are more traditional and believe that a single pregnant woman has to get married. This analysis proved the following hypotheses: the influence of the new environment and society is significant; reproductive behaviours of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are different.

10.6.2 Advice according to the place of residence

Figure 41 represents the analysis of female advice according to the place of residence. Regardless of the place of residence the number of women who insist on getting married if a woman is pregnant is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (urban areas–74 %, rural areas–73 %, remote areas–79 %) in comparison with repatriates from Kazakhstan (urban areas–34 %, rural areas–29 %, remote areas–31 %). The number of women who advice to have an abortion in such a situation is higher in Kazakhstan regardless of the place of residence (urban areas–30 %, rural areas–34 %, remote areas–32 %) than in Mongolia (only 5 % and 8 %). The number of women who believe that it is better to give birth to a child and bring him/her up without a husband is higher among the repatriates (33 % in urban areas and remote areas, 35 %

in rural areas) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (17 % and 8 % in urban and rural areas, 13 % in remote areas). The number of respondents who gave different kind of advice is 1 % and 5 %.

Figure 41 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by place of residence, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for urban areas p<0.0005, for rural areas p<0.0005, for remote areas p<0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

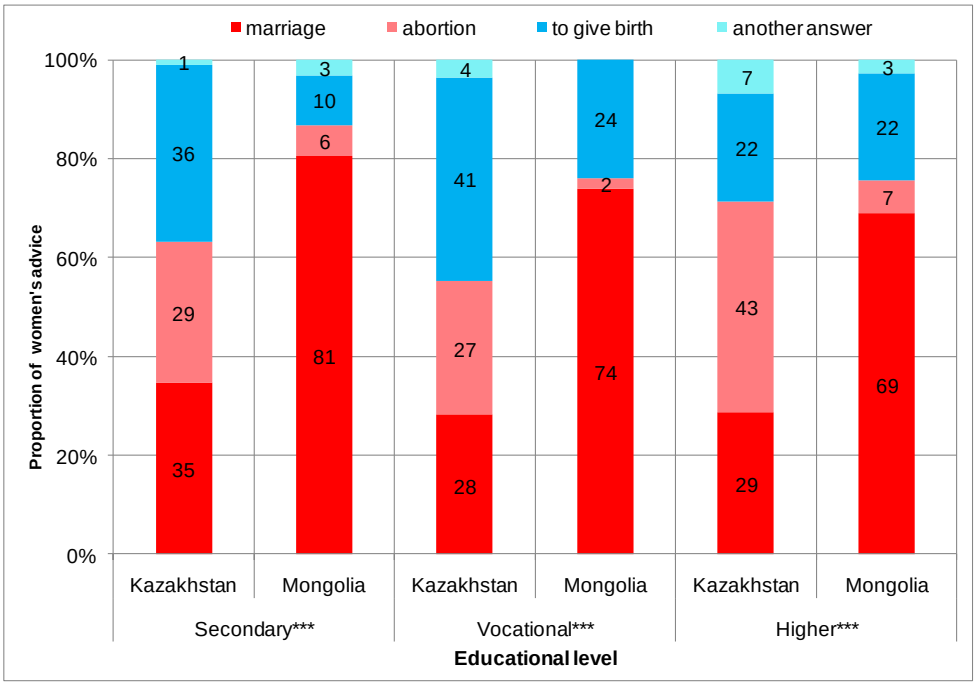
Differences among the distributions of women's advice to single pregnant women within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. Respondents from Mongolia advise to get married. They cannot accept the fact that a single woman will give birth to a child, bring him/her up alone or have an abortion. It shows that ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia are very traditional. The behaviour of repatriates from Kazakhstan has changed a lot during the last 19 years after migration. The new environment influences them a lot. They advise to get married, to have an abortion or give birth as a single parent (the percentage is similar). The following hypotheses were proven: reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs is different; the influence of the new environment is significant.

10.6.3 Advice according to educational level

The analysis of how the educational level influences the opinions of female respondents is presented in Figure 42. The number of women who advise single pregnant women to press for marriage is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs with secondary (81 %), vocational (74 %) and higher (69 %) education in comparison with repatriates from Kazakhstan (35 %, 28 % and 29 % respectively). The number of women who support and insist on abortion in such a situation is similar for repatriates with vocational and higher education (27 %) except for women with higher education (43 %). Only 2 % and 7 % of ethnic Kazakhs share the same opinion. The

opinions of women who think that a single pregnant women should give birth to a child as a single parent and bring the child up is more frequently met among the women with vocational (41 %) and secondary (36 %) education in Kazakhstan than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (10 % with secondary and 24 % with vocational education). The opinions of women with higher education is similar in both countries (10 %).

Figure 42 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by attained level of education, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for secondary education p<0.0005, for vocational education p<0.0005, for higher education p<0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

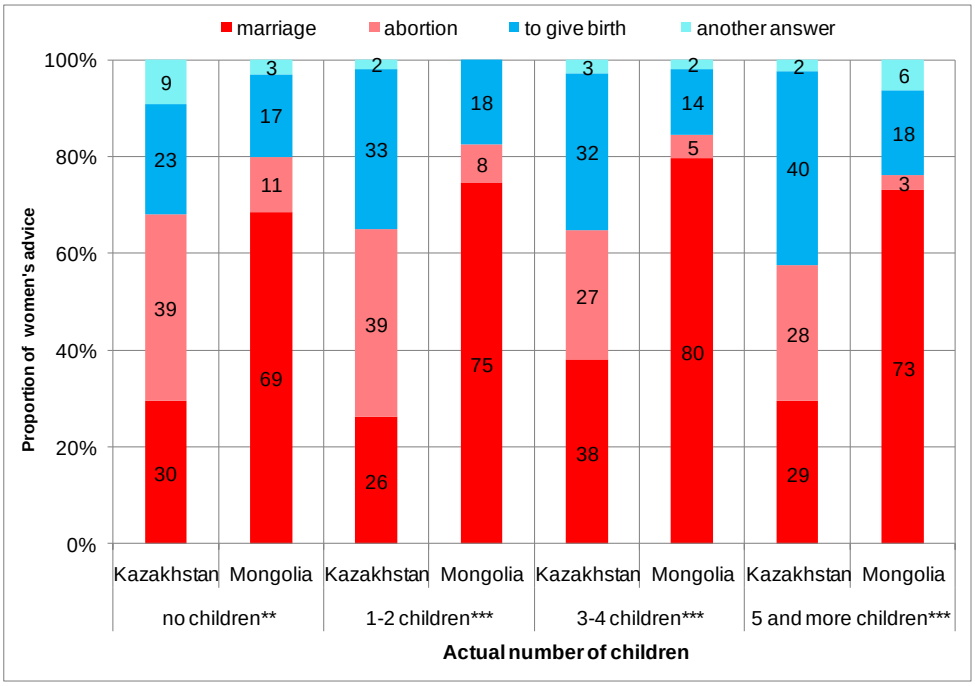
Differences among the distributions of women's advice to single pregnant women within the given educational categories are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for all cases. Ethnic Kazakhs insist on pressing for marriage. However, women with higher education started to think more liberally and suggest that single pregnant women should give birth as a single parent and bring their children up themselves. Repatriates with higher education suggest abortion as a way out. Women with vocational education advise to give birth as a single parent. As can be seen from the analysis, reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs are different and it proves the following hypothesis: the influence of the new environment and society on female behaviour is considerable. Women with higher education have more information about abortion than less educated women.

10.6.4 Advice according to children ever born

The analysis of the actual number of respondents' children on the female opinion is presented in Figure 43. The number of women who press for marriage in such a situation is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (80 % with three or four children, 75 % with one child, 73 %

with many children and 69 % of childless women) than among the repatriates in Kazakhstan (38 % with three or four children, 26 % with one child, 29 % with many children and 30 % of childless women). The number of women who suggest abortion is higher and similar to childless and women with one or two children among the repatriates (39 %) and a little bit lower among the women with three or four and five and more children (27 % and 28 %). The number of women who think that giving birth as a single parent is the best solution is higher among the repatriates with many children (40 %) and is similar to women with one or two children (33 %) and women with three or four children (32 %) among the repatriates and a little bit lower among the childless women (12 %). Similar opinions are shared by childless women (17 %), women with one or two and many children (18 %) and a little bit less (18 %) for women with three or four children for those who live in Mongolia.

Figure 43 – Respondents' attitudes towards abortion by number of children ever born, sample, 2009 (%)



Notes: Student test for no children p=0.004, for 1–2 children p<0.0005, for 3–4 children p<0.0005, for 5 and more children p<0.0005
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women's advice to single pregnant women within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for childless women and at the level of 0.1 % for all other cases. Reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs is different. Childless repatriates and young mothers advice to have abortion, women who have more children prefer and recommend to give birth as a single parent. Young and childless women are more educated, they know more about abortion than women who are older and have more children.

10.7 Abortion as seen by respondents

In order to find out how respondents see abortion and what they think about it, the following questions were asked: Could you please describe what the abortion is in your opinion? Respondents had four alternatives to choose from: (1) Abortion is a common medical procedure; (2) Abortion is a serious medical operation that influences women's health, but it is better to have an abortion than to have an unwanted child; (3) Abortion is valid only if birth is a serious threat to mother's health or fetus has an anomaly; (4) Abortion is not allowed under any circumstances. Only one alternative was allowed to be chosen.

10.7.1 Abortion as seen by respondents according to the age groups

Table 60 shows the analysis of respondents' interpretation of abortion by the age group. The opinions of respondents who consider that abortion is just a medical procedure is higher among the repatriates at the age group of 35–40 years (10 %) and among the ethnic Kazakhs at the age group of 55–60 years. The proportion of respondents who think that abortion is an influence on women's health, however it is better to have an abortion than unwanted child is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia at the age groups of 35–40 (16 %) and 55–60 years (13 %) in comparison with repatriates (10 %). The opinions of respondents who consider that abortion is valid only if fetus has an anomaly or birth will bring serious problems to mother's health is higher among the repatriates at the age group of 17–19 years (90 %) and 25–29 years (75 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (75 % and 65 %). The opinions of respondents is almost the same at the age groups of 35–40 (63 % and 67 %) and 55–60 years (61 %) in both countries. The number of respondents who think abortion is not allowed under any circumstances is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs at the age group of 25–29 years (20 %) except for the age group of 55–60 year old repatriates (27 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women's perception of abortion within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 5 % only in the case of the age group of 17–19 years old respondents and in other cases they have been found insignificant. Respondents consider abortion to be a sin and think that it is acceptable only in case when fetus has an anomaly and is a threat to mother's health. However, there are women who start seeing abortion as a medical procedure and consider it a solution in case of unwanted child. More than a quarter of repatriates of older age group think that abortion is not acceptable under any circumstances.

Table 60 – Abortion as seen by respondents according to selected age groups, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Abortion as seen by respondents	The age group of respondents							
	17–19*		25–29		35–40		55–60	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Abortion is a common medical procedure	0	5	5	5	10	6	1	8
Abortion is a serious medical operation that influences women's health, but it is better to have an abortion than to have an unwanted child	1	9	5	10	10	16	10	13
Abortion is valid only if birth is a serious threat to mother's health or fetus has an anomaly	90	75	75	65	67	63	61	61
Abortion is not allowed under any circumstances	9	11	16	20	13	15	27	17
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for the age groups of 17–19 years p=0.023, 25–29 years p=0.452, 35–40 years p=0.475, 55–60 years p<0.097

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.7.2 Abortion as seen by respondents according to the place of residence

The analysis of respondents' understanding of abortion by the place of residence is represented in Table 61. The opinions of respondents who consider that abortion is just a medical procedure is higher among the rural population in both countries (13 % in Kazakhstan, 10 % in Mongolia). The number of respondents who think that abortion is a serious medical operation influencing women's health though it is better to have an abortion than unwanted child is higher in Mongolia (10 % for urban, 20 % for rural, and 15 % for remote areas) in comparison with Kazakhstan (4 %, 14 % and 7 % respectively). The opinions of respondents who consider that abortion is valid only if fetus has an anomaly or birth will bring serious problems to mother's health is higher among the repatriates from urban (75 %) and remote areas (73 %) in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (65 % and 64% respectively). For rural population of both countries there is the same number of respondents with that opinion (55 % and 56 %). The number of respondents who think that abortion is not allowed under any circumstances is the same among the urban population in both countries (19 %), and among the rural and remote areas in Kazakhstan (18 %). The statistics for Mongolia is 15 % and 16 % respectively.

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women's perception of abortion within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically insignificant at the level of 5 % for all cases. Regardless of the place of residence, respondents from both countries think that abortion is a sin and see it as acceptable only in case of fetus' anomaly and if there is a threat to mother's health. However, repatriates from rural areas are more loyal towards abortion than women from urban and remote areas.

Table 61 – Abortion as seen by respondents according to the place of residence, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Abortion as seen by respondents	Place of residence					
	Urban areas		Rural areas		Remote areas	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Abortion is a common medical procedure	1	6	13	10	2	5
Abortion is a serious medical operation to the health of women, but it is better to have an abortion than to have an unwanted child	4	10	14	20	7	15
Abortion is valid only if the birth is a serious threat to the health of the mother or the fetus has an anomaly	76	65	56	55	73	64
Abortion is not allowed under any circumstances	19	19	18	15	18	16
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for urban areas p=0.115, for rural areas p=0.729, for remote areas p=0.247
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Source: Own survey data

10.7.3 Abortion as seen by respondents according to educational level

The analysis of respondents' understanding of abortion by educational level is represented in Table 62. The number of respondents who consider that abortion is just a medical procedure is slightly higher among the respondents with secondary education (7 % live in Mongolia and 2 % live in Kazakhstan) and among the respondents with vocational education there is the same proportion in both countries (6 % and 7 %). Among the women with higher education 8 % of repatriates and 5 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia think that abortion is just a medical procedure. The number of respondents who think that abortion is a serious medical operation influencing women's health though it is better to have an abortion than unwanted child is higher among the women with vocational (16 %) and higher (17 %) education in Mongolia except for women with secondary education which is the same in both countries (11 %). The statistics for repatriates with vocational and higher education is only 6 % and 7 %. The opinions of respondents who consider that abortion is valid only if fetus has an anomaly or birth will bring serious problems to mother's health is more frequently met among the repatriates with higher education (71 %) than in Mongolia respectively (60 %). The same number of respondents with vocational education (64 %) can be found in both countries. The number of women with the same opinion is higher among the repatriates with secondary education (69 %) in Kazakhstan than among the ethnic Kazakhs (64 %). The number of respondents who think that abortion is not allowed under any circumstances is the same among the women with secondary education (18 %) in both countries. Among the women with vocational education it is higher in Kazakhstan (24 %) than in Mongolia (14 %). The number of women with higher education who consider that abortion is not allowed under any circumstances is higher in Mongolia (17 %) in comparison with Kazakhstan (14 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women's perception of abortion within the given educational categories are statistically insignificant at the level of 5 % for all cases. Regardless of the educational level, respondents from both countries consider abortion to be acceptable only if fetus has an anomaly and there is a threat to woman's life. However, more than a quarter of repatriates with vocational education are more traditional and think that abortion is not acceptable under any circumstances. Such an opinion can be found even among the women with higher education.

Table 62 – Abortion as seen by respondents according to attained level of education, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Abortion as seen by respondents	Educational level					
	Secondary		Vocational		Higher	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Abortion is a common medical procedure	2	7	7	6	8	5
Abortion is a serious medical operation to women's health, but it is better to have an abortion than to have an unwanted child	11	11	6	16	7	17
Abortion is valid only if birth is a serious threat to mother's health or fetus has an anomaly	69	64	64	64	71	60
Abortion is not allowed under any circumstances	18	18	24	14	14	17
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for secondary education p=0.370, for vocational education p=0.185, for higher education p=0.185 Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

10.7.4 Abortion as seen by respondents according to children ever born

Table 63 shows the analysis of respondents' understanding of abortion by the actual number of children. The number of respondents who consider that abortion is just a medical procedure is higher among the respondents with five and more children (12 %) and women with one or two children (9 %) in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan (9 % and 6 % respectively). The number of respondents who think that abortion is a serious medical operation influencing women's health though it is better to have abortion than unwanted child is higher among the ethnic Kazakhs (21 % of childless women, 14 % of women with three or four children, and 12 % of women with one or two and five and more children). The statistics for Kazakhstan is 7 % and 10 %. The number of respondents who consider that abortion is valid only if fetus has an anomaly or birth will bring serious problems to mother's health is higher among the childless women (78 %), women with one or two or five and more children have approximately the same numbers (67 % and 68 %) in Kazakhstan, except for repatriates with three or four children (62 %). The same number of women who had this opinion can be met among the women with one or two and three or four children (65 % and 66 %) and 55 %–66 % among the childless and women with five and more children. The number of respondents who think abortion is not allowed under any circumstances is higher among the repatriates (27 % of women with three or four children and

20 % of women with one or two children) than ethnic Kazakhs (18 % and 14 % respectively). The number of childless women who consider that abortion is not allowed under any circumstances is higher in Mongolia (21 %) in comparison with Kazakhstan (11 %).

Table 63 – Abortion as seen by respondents according to number of children ever born, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Abortion as seen by respondents	Number of children							
	No children		1–2 children		3–4 children		5 and more children	
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG
Abortion is a common medical procedure	4	3	6	9	1	3	9	12
Abortion is a serious medical operation to women's health, but it is better to have an abortion than to have an unwanted child	7	21	7	12	10	14	8	12
Abortion is valid only if birth is a serious threat to mother's health or fetus has an anomaly	78	56	67	65	62	66	68	58
Abortion is not allowed under any circumstances	11	21	20	14	27	18	14	19
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Notes: Student test for no children p=0.134, for 1–2 children p=0.566, for 3–4 children p=0.448, for 5 and more children p=0.630

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women's perception of abortion within the actual number of children are statistically insignificant at the level of 5 % for all cases. Regardless of the actual number of children, respondents from both countries consider abortion acceptable only in case if a fetus has an anomaly and there is a threat to mother's health. However, women who think that it is better to have an abortion than an unwanted child can be met in Mongolia. Repatriates with one or two and three or four children from Kazakhstan believe that abortion is not acceptable even if there is a threat to woman's health.

10.8 The reasons that stimulate to have children

This part examines the analysis of respondents' opinions regarding children. The reasons that stimulate repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia to have children will be considered. The following question was asked: "What stimulates people to have children?" Respondents were to choose one option from each column according to its importance. The following hypothesis was chosen: the new environment and society will influence moral and cultural values of repatriates. It is also assumed that difficulties of migration will help to make cultural and traditional values and behaviour of repatriates stronger. The hypotheses, however, did not show any statistical significance. That is why only statistically significant reasons are analyzed in this part.

10.8.1 The reasons according to the age groups

Tables 64a and 64b show the analysis of the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children according to their age groups. Despite the fact that respondents from the age group of 17–19 years are single and do not have children, their opinions are also considered. According to younger respondents, the following reasons are stimulating: to get social benefits (53 % in Kazakhstan and 15 % in Mongolia) and to avoid abortion (13 % and 56 % respectively). Both of these reasons are statistically significant. The following reasons were mentioned by the majority of respondents from both countries: to continue bloodline (98 %), to have support when retired (71 % and 72 %), to ensure love and respect of a husband (91 % and 86 %) and children (90 % and 80 %). However, all these reasons are statistically insignificant. The opinions of 25–29 years old respondents are quite different between ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia and repatriates in Kazakhstan. For example: to get support for the household (67 % and 48 %), to get social benefits (63 % and 32 %) and to keep a husband in the family (59 % and 25 %). If taking into account the opinions of 35–40 years old women, the following six reasons were frequently mentioned: to get support for the household (78% and 39 %), to get social benefits from the state (82 % and 28 %), to ensure love and respect of the relatives (92 % and 61 %), to keep a husband in the family (62 % and 34 %), to have a male child (70 % and 74 %) and a female child (71 % and 47 %). However, these reasons are more important for repatriates from Kazakhstan than for ethnic Kazakhs from Mongolia. Respondents of the oldest group at the age of 55–60 years mentioned 10 stimulating reasons which are more important for repatriates in Kazakhstan than for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The ten reasons are: to get support in the household (79 % and 48 %), to have support when retired (89 % and 90 %), to get social benefits from the state (82 % and 33 %), to ensure love and respect of a husband (96 % and 69 %) and relatives (87 % and 52 %), to complete predestination (85 % and 57 %), to keep a husband in the family (78 % and 33 %), to have a male child (83 % and 50 %) and a female child (82 % and 48 %), to have children of different sex (86 % and 46 %), to be like everyone else (79 % and 31 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children such as to get support in the household within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 1 % in the case of the age group of 17–19 years old respondents, such reason as to avoid abortion at the level of 0.1 %, and to get social benefits together with to keep a husband in the family at the level of 5 %. In case of the age group of 25–29 years old respondents, such reasons as to get support in the household and to get social benefits are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %, while to keep a husband in the family, to ensure relatives' love and respect at the level of 1 % and to be like everyone else at the level of 5 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children including to get support in the household, to get social benefits, to ensure relatives' love and respect, to have a female child, to keep a husband in the family and to have a male child within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % in the case of the age group of 35–40 years old respondents, while to have children of different sex and to be like everyone else are significant at the level of 5 %. Differences among the

distributions of women according to the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children including to get support in the household, to get social benefits, to have children of different sex, to have a male child, to have a female child, to keep a husband in the family, to be like everyone else and to complete predestination within the age groups are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % in the case of the age group of 55–60 years old respondents.

Table 64a – The reasons that stimulate to have children by selected age groups of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Age group												Pearson	
	17 – 19						25 – 29							
	very important		important		not important		very important		important		not important			
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	17–19	25–29
1	98	98	0	0	2	2	90	87	7	10	3	3	0.798	0.846
2**/***	75	29	20	54	5	17	67	48	29	36	4	16	0.004	0.0005
3*/***	53	15	29	50	18	35	63	32	29	28	8	40	0.015	0.0005
4	71	72	24	19	5	8	84	75	12	22	4	3	0.834	0.343
5	91	86	7	14	1	0	85	77	15	22	0	1	0.399	0.499
6**	73	54	23	40	4	6	68	46	32	36	0	19	0.324	0.003
7	90	80	8	18	2	2	80	86	19	13	1	1	0.382	0.425
8	63	49	29	46	8	8	63	50	27	34	10	16	0.437	0.368
9*/***	39	24	17	53	44	23	59	25	20	36	21	39	0.039	0.001
10	29	43	18	31	53	26	53	45	26	22	21	33	0.150	0.348
11	25	57	38	14	38	29	57	45	23	16	20	39	0.066	0.132
12	25	57	38	17	38	26	60	44	18	16	22	40	0.088	0.152
13***	13	56	38	40	50	4	55	52	16	19	29	29	0.001	0.929
14*	7	17	40	57	53	26	62	36	20	23	18	41	0.210	0.031

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else.

Table 64b – The reasons that stimulate to have children by selected age groups of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Age group												Pearson	
	35–40						55–60							
	very important		important		not important		very important		important		not important			
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	35– 40	55–60
1	94	93	6	6	0	1	95	96	3	3	2	1	0.662	0.855
2***	78	39	17	43	5	18	79	48	10	42	11	10	0.0005	0.0005
3***	82	28	12	35	7	37	82	33	10	24	8	43	0.0005	0.0005
4	87	85	9	10	4	5	89	90	4	6	7	4	0.923	0.087
5***	88	77	10	22	3	1	96	69	4	25	0	7	0.078	0.0005
6***	92	61	7	31	1	8	87	52	13	35	0	13	0.0005	0.0005
7	87	82	12	15	1	3	88	76	10	22	2	2	0.713	0.113
8***	66	55	29	40	5	5	85	57	10	31	5	12	0.325	0.001
9***	62	34	19	42	19	24	78	33	10	41	12	26	0.001	0.0005
10**/***	66	50	26	21	8	29	86	46	7	22	7	32	0.003	0.0005
11***	70	47	25	27	5	26	83	50	10	24	7	26	0.001	0.0005
12***	71	47	24	26	5	27	82	48	8	28	10	24	0.0005	0.0005
13	62	49	30	30	8	21	76	63	11	22	13	15	0.078	0.206
14**/***	63	42	28	26	9	32	79	31	10	39	11	30	0.002	0.0005

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else

10.8.2 The reasons according to the place of residence

The analysis of the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children according to the place of residence is represented in Table 65. Regardless of the place of residence, the number of respondents who mentioned continuing the bloodline and having support after retirement as the reasons that can stimulate them to have children is quite high in both countries. There are nine reasons that stimulate respondents from urban areas to have children. The first reason is to get different benefits from the state (78 % in Kazakhstan and 27 % in Mongolia). The second reason is to get support for the household (72 % in Kazakhstan and 27 % in Mongolia). The statistics for other reasons were to have support when retired (88 % and 82 %), to ensure

relatives' love and respect (85 % and 53 %), to keep a husband in the family (62 % and 28 %), to have children of different sex (68 % and 46 %), to have a female child (72 % and 44 %), to be like everyone else (59 % and 27 %). All these reasons are important for repatriates from Kazakhstan, they are less or not important for ethnic Kazakhs. There are seven stimulating reasons for respondents who live in rural areas: to have support for the household (78 % in Kazakhstan and 32 % in Mongolia), to get different benefits from the state (78 % and 23 %), to ensure husband's love and respect (94 % and 57 %), to keep a husband in the family (66 % and 33 %), to have a female child (80 % and 44 %) and a male child (79 % and 50 %). All of the above mentioned reasons are important for repatriates in Kazakhstan, some of them are less important for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. There are only three stimulating reasons for the people who live in remote areas. They are important for repatriates and less important for ethnic Kazakhs. Keeping a husband in the family is important in Kazakhstan (69 %), such stimulus is less important in Mongolia (37 %). Getting social benefits from the state is important for respondents in both countries, however the number of repatriates who are stimulated by this reason is higher (75 %) than in Mongolia (42 %). The last stimulating reason for respondents in remote areas is to ensure love and respect of the relatives (83 % of repatriates and 64 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children such as to get support in the household, to be like everyone else, to get social benefits, to ensure relatives' love and respect, to have children of different sex, to have a male and a female child, to keep a husband in the family within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for urban areas, and to have support when retired at the level of 5 %. In case of rural areas, such reasons as to get support in the household, to get social benefits, to ensure husband's and relatives' love and respect and to keep a husband in the family are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %, while reasons including to ensure children's love and respect, to have children of different sex and to be like everyone else are significant at the level of 5 %, and to have a female child at the level of 0.1 %. Differences among the distributions of women according to the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children including to keep a husband in the family within the given categories of the place of residence are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 % for remote areas, and such reasons as to continue bloodline, to have children of different sex, to ensure relatives' love and respect and to complete predestination at the level of 5 %. The analysis also revealed that despite of the place of residence the number of respondents who mentioned the continuation of the bloodline and having support when retired as the most important is quite high. Having social benefits and help for the household, keeping a husband in the family are important for repatriates in Kazakhstan and less important for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Respondents from urban and rural areas mentioned a lot of stimulating reasons for having children, but those who live in remote areas mentioned about three or four reasons only.

Table 65a – The reasons that stimulate to have children by place of residence of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Place of residence												Pearson	
	Urban areas						Rural areas							
	very important		important		not important		very important		important		not important			
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	Urban areas	Rural areas
1	96	92	3	6	1	2	86	93	13	5	1	2	0.572	0.331
2***	72	32	18	49	10	19	78	32	18	45	4	23	0.0005	0.0005
3***	78	27	10	30	12	43	78	23	19	21	3	55	0.0005	0.0005
4*	88	82	4	16	8	2	89	84	10	6	1	10	0.018	0.143
5***	88	78	10	19	2	3	94	57	6	38	0	4	0.185	0.0005
6***	85	53	13	32	2	16	85	41	15	44	0	15	0.0005	0.0005
7*	81	87	17	12	2	1	89	73	9	23	1	4	0.622	0.038
8	70	54	25	34	5	12	69	53	23	36	8	11	0.091	0.211
9***	66	28	20	40	14	32	66	33	12	42	22	25	0.0005	0.0005
10***/*	68	46	25	18	7	36	73	49	16	28	11	23	0.0005	0.026
11***/**	70	44	23	20	7	36	79	50	13	26	9	24	0.0005	0.005
12***	72	44	20	19	8	37	80	48	13	28	7	24	0.0005	0.001
13	62	61	23	17	15	22	67	44	17	27	16	29	0.448	0.076
14***/**	59	27	24	33	17	40	75	43	16	20	9	37	0.001	0.002

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else

Table 65b – The reasons that stimulate to have children by place of residence of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Place of residence						
	Remote areas						Pearson
	very important		important		not important		
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	Remote areas
1*	97	92	0	7	3	1	0.039
2	76	57	16	32	8	11	0.068
3***	75	42	15	36	10	22	0.001
4	84	86	9	11	6	3	0.403
5	87	86	13	14	0	0	0.866
6*	83	64	17	30	0	6	0.019
7	85	80	12	19	3	1	0.528
8*	77	55	17	38	6	8	0.020
9***	69	34	17	37	14	29	0.0005
10*	69	47	17	23	14	30	0.030
11	66	50	21	26	13	24	0.139
12	65	49	18	26	18	25	0.220
13	68	51	20	38	12	11	0.128
14	71	52	20	29	9	19	0.186

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else

10.8.3 The reasons according to educational level

The analysis of the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children according to educational levels is presented in Table 66. Regardless of the educational level of respondents from both countries the most frequently mentioned reason was to continue the bloodline. The opinions of

respondents with secondary education are almost identical (95 % and 96 %), the number of repatriates with vocational education (91 %) and higher education (92 %) is a little higher in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (89 % and 91 %). More women with secondary education (84 % in Kazakhstan and 89 % in Mongolia) would like to have support when retired in comparison with women with vocational (90 % and 86 %) and higher education (87 % and 73 %). Respondents with secondary education mentioned six stimulating reasons to have children. It is a larger number of reasons mentioned by the repatriates from Kazakhstan compared to ethnic Kazakhs from Mongolia. The first reason is to get social benefits from the state (81 % in Kazakhstan and 35 % in Mongolia). The second reason is to get help for the household (76 % in Kazakhstan and 47 % in Mongolia). Other reasons are to ensure relatives' love and respect (88 % and 57 %), to fulfill what has been predestined (78 % and 53 %), to keep a husband in the family (66 % and 36 %), to have children of different sex (71 % and 54 %) and to have a female child (73 % and 56 %). The following reasons are the most important and stimulating for respondents with vocational education: to get help for the household (81 % in Kazakhstan and 23 % in Mongolia), to get social benefits from the state (83 % and 33 %), to ensure relatives' love and respect (86 % and 60 %), to keep a husband in the family (75 % and 29 %), to have children of different sex (84 % and 43 %), to have a female child (81 % and 43 %) and to have a male child (87 % and 40 %), to avoid abortion (71 % and 25 %) and to fulfill what has been predestined (74 % and 35 %). All the above-mentioned reasons are important for repatriates from Kazakhstan. They are less or not important for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Five reasons were pointed out by respondents with higher education (they are important for repatriates and less or not important for ethnic Kazakhs). To get support and help for the household is more important for Kazakhstan (65 %) than Mongolia (44 %). To keep a husband in the family is important for Kazakhstan (57 %) and less important for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (41 %). For 59 % of repatriates it is important to be like everyone else. Only 40 % of ethnic Kazakhs want to follow others. The last important reason for repatriates is to ensure relatives' love and respect (76 %). For ethnic Kazakhs that last reason has less or no importance at all (40 %).

Table 66a –The reasons that stimulate to have children by attained level of education of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Educational level												Pearson	
	Secondary						Vocational							
	very important		important		not important		very important		important		not important			
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	Secondary	Voc – l
1	96	95	3	5	1	0	91	89	8	9	1	2	0.435	0.484
2***	76	47	15	38	9	15	81	23	13	63	6	13	0.0005	0.0005
3***	81	35	12	34	7	32	83	33	13	23	4	43	0.0005	0.0005
4*	84	89	7	10	9	1	90	86	7	11	3	3	0.031	0.761
5*/**	93	79	7	18	0	2	91	67	8	30	1	3	0.048	0.006
6***/*	88	57	12	32	0	11	86	60	13	33	1	7	0.0005	0.015
7**	76	80	22	16	3	4	93	71	7	30	0	0	0.578	0.002
8***/*	78	53	20	36	2	11	76	52	17	39	7	9	0.001	0.037
9***	66	36	18	46	16	18	75	29	10	26	15	45	0.0005	0.0005
10**/***	71	54	20	19	9	27	84	43	10	23	6	34	0.010	0.0005
11***	70	58	19	22	11	20	87	40	10	23	3	37	0.177	0.0005
12***	73	56	15	24	12	21	81	43	12	17	7	40	0.055	0.0005
13***	68	61	18	22	15	17	71	25	18	33	12	42	0.657	0.0005
14**/***	71	44	16	29	13	27	74	35	16	17	10	48	0.008	0.0005

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else

Table 65b – The reasons that stimulate to have children by attained level of education of repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Educational level						
	Higher						Pearson
	very important		important		not important		
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	Higher
1	92	91	5	7	3	2	0.901
2***	65	32	29	44	6	25	0.001
3***	61	19	25	27	14	54	0.0005
4	87	73	11	17	2	6	0.216
5	84	73	15	25	2	2	0.328
6***	76	40	24	40	0	20	0.0005
7	89	89	8	11	3	0	0.429
8	57	57	31	31	12	12	0.998
9***	57	24	21	36	22	41	0.001
10	49	37	31	25	20	30	0.127
11**	53	31	31	26	16	43	0.009
12**	59	32	27	29	14	40	0.004
13	55	59	27	24	18	17	0.937
14***	59	25	29	35	12	40	0.001

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children such as to get support in the household, to get social benefits, to keep a husband in the family and to have children of different sex, to have a male, to have a female child and to avoid abortion within the given educational categories are statistically

significant at the level of 0.1 % for women with secondary secondary and vocational education and such reason as to be like everyone else only among the women with vocational education. Reasons including to have support when retired and to ensure husband's love and respect are significant at the level of 5 % for women with secondary education and to have a female child together with such reason as to complete predestination at the level of 0.1 %. Statistically significant differences for such reasons as to get support in the household, to keep a husband in the family and to be like everyone else among the women with university degree are significant at the level of 0.1 %, and reasons as to get social benefits, to ensure relatives' love and respect and to have a female child at the level of 1 %. Regardless of the educational levels, the stimulating reasons for having children are continuing the bloodline and having support when retired, however, they are not statistically significant. Having different benefits from the state and some help for the household, keeping a husband in the family are the most stimulating factors for repatriates in Kazakhstan, however, they are less important for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. For respondents with secondary and vocational education it is very important to have children of different sex, male or a female child. For respondents with higher education child's sex is not important at all. As it can be seen from the analysis, all the reasons are important for repatriates. The only two that can be regarded as less important are continuing the bloodline and having support when retired. Repatriates try to save their marriages. Being single in a new country is very difficult for them. It means that repatriates keep giving birth to children even after moving to another country because children are the guarantors of a sound marriage, financial support of the state as well as the supporters for the household and after the retirement.

10.8.4 The reasons according to children ever born

The analysis of the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children according to the actual number of children is presented in Tables 67a and 67b. The number of childless women who would like to get social benefits from the state is higher among the repatriates (54 %) than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (29 %). Despite the fact that the numbers for such reasons as continuation of the bloodline (86 % in Kazakhstan and 83 % in Mongolia) and having support when retired (77 % and 67 %) are higher they are not statistically significant. Respondents who have one or two children mentioned two stimulating reasons for having children. The first is to get social benefits from the state (63 % in Kazakhstan and 38 % in Mongolia). However, there are 38 % of respondents in Mongolia who do not consider this reason to be stimulating. The second reason is to ensure relatives' love and respect which is mostly mentioned by repatriates (84 %) other than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (44 %). The analysis of the reasons mentioned by women with three or four children revealed seven reasons. That is to have support and help for the household (80 % in Kazakhstan and 37 % in Mongolia), to get social benefits from the state (83 % of repatriates and 28 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia), to ensure love and respect of a husband (91 % and 71 % of respondents in both countries respectively), to fulfill what has been predestined (74 % and 51 % respectively), to have a male child (70 % and 45 % respectively). Keeping a husband in the family is important for 63 % of repatriates, only 45 % of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia mentioned the same reason as stimulating. Nine reasons were mentioned by respondents with large families. The number of

respondents who consider these nine reasons to be important is higher among the repatriates from Kazakhstan than among the ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. The reasons are: to get help for the household (84 % in Kazakhstan, 46 % in Mongolia), to get social benefits from the state (87 % and 28 %), to ensure love and respect of a husband (96 % and 75 %), and of the relatives (91 % and 60 %), to keep a husband in the family (78 % and 40 %), to have children of different sex (80 % and 47 %), to have a female child (81 % and 50 %), to have a male child (81 % and 84 %) and finally to be like everyone else (77 % and 33 %).

Conclusion

Differences among the distributions of women according to the reasons that stimulate respondents to have children such as to get social benefits within the actual number of children are statistically significant at the level of 1 % for childless women and such reason as to keep a husband in the family at the level of 5 %. Among the women who have one or two children such reason as to ensure relatives' love and respect is statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %, while to get social benefits from the state and to keep a husband in the family at the level of 5 %. In case of those women who have three or four children such reason as fulfilling what has been predestined has statistically significant differences at the level of 5 %, while to get support in the household, to get social benefits, to ensure relatives' love and respect and to keep a husband in the family are significant at the level of 0.1 %, and to have children of different sex together with to be like everyone else at the level of 1 %. Among the women with large families such reasons as to have a male child, to get support in the household, to get social benefits, to ensure relatives' love and respect, to have children of different sex and to have a female child are statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %. The reasons that stimulate respondents to have children are different for repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Regardless of the number of children, getting social benefits from the state is the major stimulating reason for repatriates from Kazakhstan, i.e. economic reasons prevail. Children are also seen as a major source of help in the household and the way of keeping a husband in the family for repatriates. However, women in both countries agreed that children are a big support when they retire and represent the continuation of the bloodline.

Table 67a –The reasons that stimulate to have children by number of children ever born, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Number of children												Pearson	
	no children						1–2 children							
	very important		important		not important		very important		important		not important			
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	no children	1–2 children
1	86	83	11	12	3	6	85	93	13	5	2	2	0.807	0.283
2*	56	37	40	41	4	22	64	40	31	38	5	22	0.122	0.039
3**/*	54	29	38	29	8	43	63	38	26	24	11	38	0.011	0.018
4	77	67	19	30	4	3	78	86	16	11	5	4	0.677	0.680
5	77	75	23	25	0	0	88	83	12	15	0	2	0.563	0.614
6***	58	52	42	33	0	15	84	44	14	42	2	14	0.121	0.001
7	71	93	29	7	0	0	95	89	5	11	0	0	0.116	0.298
8	44	48	37	41	19	11	64	57	31	30	5	13	0.682	0.488
9*/**	46	15	29	44	25	41	65	33	8	35	27	33	0.040	0.003
10	29	33	38	22	33	44	74	55	18	20	9	25	0.477	0.115
11**	35	39	35	11	30	50	79	55	18	14	3	31	0.099	0.006
12**	38	38	33	14	29	48	82	52	12	14	6	34	0.180	0.007
13	44	44	26	33	30	22	59	51	27	20	15	29	0.804	0.366
14**	44	28	32	33	24	39	66	42	29	19	5	39	0.469	0.006

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else

Table 67a – The reasons that stimulate to have children by number of children ever born, repatriates (KZ) and ethnic Kazakhs (MG), sample, 2009 (%)

Reason*	Number of children												Pearson	
	3–4 children						5 and more children							
	very important		important		not important		very important		important		not important			
	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	KZ	MG	3–4 children	5 and more children
1	97	94	2	6	1	0	97	95	2	3	1	2	0.171	0.679
2***	80	37	12	47	8	16	84	46	8	41	8	13	0.0005	0.0005
3***	83	28	9	35	8	37	87	28	8	28	5	44	0.0005	0.0005
4	92	86	4	11	4	2	91	87	3	8	6	5	0.511	0.190
5*/***	91	71	8	25	1	4	96	75	2	23	2	2	0.038	0.0005
6***	88	57	12	28	0	14	91	60	9	34	0	6	0.0005	0.0005
7	90	75	10	21	0	4	82	79	14	19	4	2	0.054	0.689
8*/**	74	51	20	42	6	7	84	59	13	28	3	14	0.016	0.004
9***	63	30	15	45	22	25	78	40	16	34	6	26	0.0005	0.0005
10**/***	73	46	19	24	8	30	80	47	13	19	7	34	0.002	0.0005
11**/***	70	45	20	32	10	23	81	48	13	25	6	27	0.011	0.0005
12**/***	70	44	18	33	12	23	81	50	12	23	7	27	0.008	0.001
13	70	56	18	23	12	21	72	60	16	26	12	14	0.252	0.388
14**/***	70	39	18	28	12	33	77	33	13	36	10	31	0.004	0.0005

Note: Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Source: Own survey data

Reasons*

1. To continue bloodline;
2. To get support in the household;
3. To get social benefits from the state;
4. To have support when retired;
5. To ensure husband's love and respect;
6. To ensure relatives' love and respect;
7. To ensure children's love and respect;
8. To complete predestination;
9. To keep a husband in the family;
10. To have children of different sex;
11. To have a male child;
12. To have a female child;
13. To avoid abortion;
14. To be like everyone else

11 Comprehensive modeling of variables interactions

This chapter will be a summary of the results of the whole analysis of reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. In this chapter, the results of modeling sample survey data with Poisson regression and testing of the following hypothesis will be discussed: (i) The levels of fertility of repatriates decreased after their moving to Kazakhstan which can be connected with the new social environment; (ii) It is assumed that the behaviour of repatriates will depend on the impact of these new living conditions (financial well-being, living environment, etc.); (iii) Socio-economic conditions of the new environment influenced fertility positively; (iv) Reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia substantially differs from ethnic Kazakhs living in Mongolia (differences in behaviour across the repatriate groups especially among younger generation); (v) It is also assumed that difficulties of migration will help to make cultural and traditional values and behaviour of repatriates at the older age stronger (values of children, role of a husband in the family, divorce risks, gender preferences etc.) whereas the behaviour and attitudes of younger generation differ from them. In this chapter only statistically significant main models with several independent factors will be interpreted. On the other hand, simple one and two factor models were used in order to determine simple differences between the coefficients.

11.1 Model I with demographic variables

The results of Poisson regression on average number of children for Mongolia and Kazakhstan apart are as follows: In Table 68 we fit simple models that predict number of children from the age group of respondents. Among all the parameters of the age group of women average number of children is higher in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia. Positive coefficient for the age group of women at age of 35–40 years compared to 25–29 years old women is higher in Kazakhstan (exp 1.42=4.1 children) than in Mongolia (exp 1.29=3.7 children). Those women from Kazakhstan at the age group of 55–60 years have, on average more children (exp 1.86=6.4 children) compared with women from the age group of 25–29 years while in Mongolia it is lower (exp 1.63=5.1 children). Similarly, the expected number of children for women at the age group of 55–60 versus 35–40 years old is lower in both countries (exp 0.44=1.5 for Kazakhstan, exp 0.33=1.4 for Mongolia). The results of the Wald Chi-Square tests indicate that there is statistically significant difference between all three parameters of the age groups versus 25–29 years olds at the level of 0.1 %.

Table 68 – Relative average number of children adjusted for age, separately for Kazakhstan (SM1KZ) and Mongolia (SM1MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1	Exp(b1)	Pr>ChiSq
SM1KZ Kazakhstan	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29 ***	–0.102	1.4	4.1	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***		1.9	6.4	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***	μ=0.90	0.4	1.5	0.0001
SM1MG Mongolia	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29***	–0.095	1.3	3.7	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***		1.6	5.1	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***	μ=0.91	0.3	1.4	0.0001

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* age group
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

One of the main factors which are negatively related to fertility is educational level of women. In Table 69 we fit simple models that predict number of children from educational level of respondents. According to submodel 2 we can see that the effect of women with secondary education versus women with vocational education on fertility is negative in Kazakhstan (exp –0.04=1 children). Absolutely the same predicted number of children is for women with secondary education compared with those who have higher education (exp 0.56=1.8) and those women who graduated from vocational training schools compared with women who have higher education (exp 0.59=1.8) in Kazakhstan. In Mongolia the expected number of children is slightly higher among the women with secondary versus higher (exp 0.70=2.0 children) and secondary versus vocational education (exp 0.18=1.2 children) due to statistical significant difference at the level of 5 %.

Table 69 – Relative average number of children adjusted for educational level, separately for Kazakhstan (SM2KZ) and Mongolia (SM2MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1	Exp(b1)	Pr>ChiSq
SM2KZ Kazakhstan	**Educational level**				
	Secondary vs higher***	0.486	0.56	1.8	0.0001
	Vocational vs higher***		0.59	1.8	0.0001
	Secondary vs vocational	μ=1.63	–0.04	1.0	0.6244
SM2MG Mongolia	**Educational level**				
	Secondary vs higher***	0.492	0.70	2.0	0.0001
	Vocational vs higher***		0.52	1.7	0.0001
	Secondary vs vocational*	μ=1.64	0.18	1.2	0.0510

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* education
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

It is clearly seen from Table 70 that those women who live in remote areas in Kazakhstan have more children than women living in urban areas (exp 0.11=3.0 children), however the difference between coefficients is not significant. Absolutely the same negative coefficient

describes the situation with women from rural areas compared with urban areas in both countries (exp –0.13=0.9 and exp –0.06=0.9 children). Slightly higher coefficients are shown for those women from Mongolia who live in remote areas compared with women from urban areas (exp 0.15=1.2 children) and women who live in remote areas versus women from rural areas (exp 0.21=1.2 children).

Table 70– Relative average number of children adjusted for place of residence, separately for Kazakhstan (SM3KZ) and Mongolia (SM3MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1	Exp(b1)	Pr>ChiSq
SM3KZ Kazakhstan	**Place of residence**				
	Rural vs urban	0.956	– 0.13	0.9	0.1379
	Remote vs urban	μ=2.60	– 0.01	1.0	0.8931
	Remote vs rural		0.11	3.0	0.1692
SM3MG Mongolia	**Place of residence**				
	Rural vs urban	0.869	– 0.06	0.9	0.4830
	Remote vs urban	μ=2.38	0.15	1.2	0.0590
	Remote vs rural*		0.21	1.2	0.0280

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* place of residence
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

In Table 71 we represent the results of Poisson regression on average number of children according to marital status of women. The effect of widowed women versus married women showed statistically significance at the level of 1 %. Widowed women from Kazakhstan have more children compared to married women (exp 0.25=1.3 children), while in Mongolia those women have on average lower number of children (exp –0.24=0.7 children).

Table 71 – Relative average number of children adjusted for marital status, separately for Kazakhstan (SM4KZ) and Mongolia (SM4MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1	Exp(b1)	Pr>ChiSq
SM4KZ Kazakhstan	**Marital status**	1.348			
	Widowed vs married*	μ=3.85	0.25	1.3	0.0349
SM4MG Mongolia	**Marital status**	1.176			
	Widowed vs married	μ=3.24	–0.24	0.7	0.0894

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* marital status
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

Question 1: *What is the predicted average number of children for women from both countries at the age group of 25–29 years with higher education?* In Table 72 we represent the results of Poisson regression on average number of children according to educational level of women. Parameter of the age group of women is a controlling variable. Predicted average number of children for women at the age group of 25–29 years with higher education is similar in both

countries (exp –0.01=0.99 children for Kazakhstan; exp –0.02=0.97 children for Mongolia). Average number of children of women with secondary education is higher in contrast of those women with higher education in Kazakhstan (exp 0.08=1.1 children) than in Mongolia (exp 0.25=0.8 children). Similarly, expected number of children of women with secondary education at the age group of 25–29 years compared with those women with vocational education showed positive coefficient in Kazakhstan (exp 0.17=1.2 children) and in Mongolia (exp 0.24=1.3 children) due to the levels of significance at 5 % and 1 %.

Table 72 – Relative average number of children adjusted for age group and educational level, separately for Kazakhstan (SM5KZ) and Mongolia (SM5MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1+b2	Exp b1+b2	Pr>ChiSq
SM5KZ Kazakhstan	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29***	–0.010	1.40	4.0	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=0.99	1.84	6.3	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***		0.44	1.6	0.0001
	Educational level				
	Secondary vs higher		0.08	1.1	0.4077
	Vocational vs higher		–0.09	0.9	0.3356
	Secondary vs vocational*		0.17	1.2	0.0306
SM5MG Mongolia	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29***	–0.026	1.08	2.9	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=0.97	1.42	4.1	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***		0.34	1.4	0.0001
	Educational level				
	Secondary vs higher**		0.25	0.8	0.0061
	Vocational vs higher		–0.01	1.0	0.9423
	Secondary vs vocational**		0.24	1.3	0.0076

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* age group +b2*educational level
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

Question 2: *What is the predicted average number of children for women at the age group of 25–29 years with higher education that live in urban areas in Kazakhstan compared with Mongolia?* Women with secondary education compared with women who have higher education (exp 0.25=1.3) and vocational education (exp 0.24=1.3) in Mongolia have on average higher number of children and absolutely the same number of children due to the statistically significant difference at 1 % than those women who live in Kazakhstan (exp –0.08=0.9 children for higher; exp –0.09=0.9 children). Women with secondary education in contrast to women with vocational education in Mongolia have on average higher number of children (exp 0.23=1.3 children) compared with those women in Kazakhstan (exp 0.17=1.2 children). Women who live in rural areas versus women living in urban areas have higher average number of children in Mongolia (exp 0.02=1.0 children) compared with Kazakhstan (exp –0.21=0.8 children). Despite the place of residence, average number of children of ethic Kazakhs in Mongolia is 1.0 child. Women who live in remote areas versus urban areas have on average lower number of children (exp –0.15=0.9 children) compared with women living in remote areas versus rural areas (exp 0.06=1.1 children) in Kazakhstan. The effect of educational levels and the place of residence negatively relate to average number of children for women from

Kazakhstan if compared with Mongolia. They are predicted to have fewer children than women from Mongolia (see Table 73).

Table 73 – Relative average number of children adjusted for age group, educational level an place of residence, separately for Kazakhstan (SM6KZ) and Mongolia (SM6MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1+b2+b3	Exp b1+b2+b3	Pr>ChiSq
SM6KZ Kazakhstan	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29 ***	0.030	1.39	4.0	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=0.97	1.85	6.3	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***		0.45	1.6	0.0001
	Educational level				
	Secondary vs higher		0.08	1.1	0.3639
	Vocational vs higher		–0.09	0.9	0.3542
	Secondary vs vocational*		0.17	1.2	0.0296
	Place of residence				
	Rural vs urban**		–0.21	0.8	0.0129
	Remote vs urban		–0.15	0.9	0.0808
	Remote vs rural		0.06	1.1	0.4549
SM6MG Mongolia	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29 ***	–0.039	1.07	2.9	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=0.96	1.42	1.5	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***		0.34	1.4	0.0001
	Educational level				
	Secondary vs higher**		0.25	1.3	0.0073
	Vocational vs higher		0.01	1.0	0.9203
	Secondary vs vocational**		0.23	1.3	0.0119
	Place of residence				
	Rural vs urban		0.02	1.0	0.8548
	Remote vs urban		0.03	1.0	0.6819
	Remote vs rural		0.02	1.0	0.8634

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* age group +b2*educational level+b3*place of residence
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

Question 3: *What is the predicted average number of children for married women at the age group of 25–29 years with higher education that live in urban areas in Kazakhstan compared with Mongolia?* Four variables additive general Model 1 is presented in Table 74. From this table it can be clearly seen that the effect of age group of women on the average number of children are statistically significant. This Model showed that educational level, place of residence and marital status of women negatively relate to fertility of women living in Kazakhstan. Therefore, those women from Kazakhstan have on average slightly higher expected number of children (exp 0.534=1.71 children) compared with Mongolia (exp 0.155=1.17 children). Among the three parameters of educational levels only women with secondary education have on average slightly higher predicted number of children compared with women who have vocational (exp 0.13=1.1 children) and secondary versus higher (exp –0.11=1 children) education. The same situation is observed for women living in Mongolia. That means women with secondary education (secondary versus vocational exp 0.22=1.2 children) from both countries have on average slightly higher number of children.

Table 74 – Relative average number of children adjusted for age group, educational level, place of residence and marital status, separately for Kazakhstan (M1KZ) and Mongolia (M1MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1+b2+b3+b4	Exp b1+b2+b3+b4	Pr>ChiSq
M1KZ Kazakhstan	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29***	0.534	0.92	2.5	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=1.71	1.37	4.0	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***		0.46	1.6	0.0001
	Educational level				
	Secondary vs higher		–0.01	1.0	0.8864
	Vocational vs higher		–0.15	0.9	0.1337
	Secondary vs vocational		0.13	1.1	0.0962
	Place of residence				
	Rural vs urban		–0.12	0.9	0.1500
	Remote vs urban		–0.10	0.9	0.2267
	Remote vs rural		0.02	1.0	0.8127
	Marital status				
	Single vs married		–25.1	0.0	0.9995
	Widowed vs married		–0.05	0.9	0.6604
M1MG Mongolia	**Age group**				
	35–40 vs 25–29***	0.155	0.91	2.5	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=1.17	1.25	3.5	0.0001
	55–60 vs 35–40***		0.34	1.4	0.0001
	Educational level				
	Secondary vs higher*		0.21	1.2	0.0234
	Vocational vs higher		–0.01	1.0	0.8938
	Secondary vs vocational**		0.22	1.2	0.0182
	Place of residence				
	Rural vs urban		0.01	1.0	0.8839
	Remote vs urban		0.05	1.0	0.5736
	Remote vs rural		0.03	1.0	0.8839
	Marital status				
	Single vs married		–23.9	0.0	0.8839
	Widowed vs married*		0.36	1.4	0.0334

Notes: log (mean number of children)=Intercept+ b1* age group +b2*educational level+b3*place of residence+b4*marital status

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.

Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS

Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The Poisson regression analysis of Model 1 shows that the predicted average number of children for married women at the age group of 25–29 years with higher education who live in urban areas is less than for the older age group of respondents with the same characteristics in Mongolia. The effect of secondary education in both countries is positive, whereas higher and vocational education affects the predicted number of children negatively. A comparison of the coefficients of different levels showed that there was a declining effect with increased education. Education was found to be associated with a number of children per woman, with all the parameters of educational levels reducing the number of children a woman has. Despite the place of residence such group of women in Mongolia on average expected to have 1 child. Predicted number of children in rural and urban areas of Kazakhstan had a negative influence, whereas the impact of remote areas is positive. Such women in Kazakhstan expect to have on average slightly less children than in Mongolia. The effect of older age always positively

influences the number of children compraed with younger age. The expected number of children is higher among the repatriates from Kazakhstan compared with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Our hypothesis that women with higher education have fewer children than less educated women and that the number of children in urban areas is less than in rural areas is proven. It indicates that the average number of children decreases when the value of education is increased.

11.2 Model II with socio-economic variables

Living standards of repatriants' families after repatriation to Kazakhstan have changed accordingly. They followed nomadic life style before migration and got settled after migration. Since improvement of the living conditions and welfare of the population are the most important criterias influencing fertility, it would be interesting to see how socio-economic and cultural changes in the new areas influenced reproductive intentions of repatriants in a depressive or stimulating way. Living conditions determine the needs in children and the demand in the housing market. The income of a family makes the demand solvent. In our Model 1 modernization with fertility level of respondents will be connected and the following research hypothesis will be investigated: reproductive intentions of respondents will depend on the impact of these new living conditions (financial well-being, living environment, and etc.). The next hypothesis assumes that socio-economic changes of the new environment will have stimulating effect on fertility of the returnees and investigates how living conditions will influence fertility. Evaluation of living conditions will include financial situation of the family, acute problems of respondents and opinions of respondents about changes in life conditions of the family during the past 10 years. An attempt will be made to investigate whether these factors are related to a decrease or an increase in fertility level.

Question 1*: What is the predicted average number of children of unemployed respondents from Kazakhstan at the age group of 25–29 years without family income who live in bad living and financial conditions compared with Mongolia?* Besides, we will investigate the differences between the reference parameters and other categories of variables. Results of Poisson regression parameter estimates in Table 3 show the predicted average number of children for different categories of age groups of respondents, different values of income and the acute problems, as well as financial situation of the families and living standards of respondents. Model 2 shows that age groups of respondents and some parameters of family income and the acute problems are positively related to fertility due to insignificant p-values. Therefore most of the parameters are negatively related to the expected number of children. These categories of women from both countries are predicted to have 1 child (exp –0.03=1.0). Women at the age group of 35–40 years living in Kazakhstan versus women at the age group of 25–29 years on average have higher (exp 1.41=4.1 children) number of children compared with Mongolia (exp 1.02=2.8 children). Then older ages of 55–60 years versus younger ages of 25–29 years have on average higher number of children in Kazakhstan (exp 1.85=6.4 children) than in Mongolia (exp 1.34=3.8 children). Despite of the different size of family income, predicted number of children per woman from both countries is quite similar. Predicted number of children per

woman with low family income versus no income or women with higher family income compared with women who do not have income is 1 child. Women from Kazakhstan in spite of different financial situations are expected to have on average slightly higher number of children compared with those women living in Mongolia.

Another question that was asked during the opinion poll was how the quality of life changed in respondents' families during the last decade. Women from both countries are predicted to have on average absolutely the same number of children (1 child) despite all the negative values of all the parameters of living conditions compared with bad living conditions. The differences between parameters are not significant.

In order to understand the scope of the problems in the lives of respondents and their influence on fertility it is necessary to consider the answers to the following questions: "What are the most acute problems you face in your life?" All parameter categories of the acute problems are negatively related to the average number of children per woman at the age group of 25–29 years in both countries. Therefore, parameter coefficients of unemployed women from Mongolia compared with women who have unemployed husband highly affect the expected number of children (exp –0.66=0.5 children) and have statistically significant differences at the level of 1 %. Predicted number of children per woman who consider low level of work of local authorities' as the acute problem versus unemployed women is quite higher in Kazakhstan (exp 1.22=3.4 children) due to level of significancy at the level of 5 %. Model 2 shows that socio-economic variables are one of the most important factors which negatively affect the predicted average number of children in both countries. Despite the fact that the coefficients of other acute problems are negatively related to the average number of children the differences between the parameters are not statistically significant.

Conclusion

The analysis of socio-economic variables in Model 2 shows that despite of the differences in the size of family income they expected to have on average 1 child. On the other hand, we found that improved financial situation negatively affects fertility. Despite of the perfect financial situation women are predicted to have fewer children in both countries. Therefore, improved living conditions are also negatively related to fertility. It means that socio-economic factors are one of the most important factors which negatively affect fertility levels. The analysis of the acute problems revealed that respondents who are worried about crime in the city and family relationships are predicted to have fewer children. Women who have unemployed husband expect to have 0.5 children in Mongolia, whereas such women in Kazakhstan are predicted to have 1 child. Women who have such problems as lack of own house, poor living conditions and low quality of medical services are predicted to have slightly higher number of children in Mongolia than in Kazakhstan. It proves the following hypothesis: (i) when life standards are low, fertility may improve the standards of life (Malthus). On the other hand, we found that the demand for child quality naturally leads richer parents to want more quality and thus less quantity, what is often called quantity-quality hypothesis which is also accepted (Schultz, 2006).

Table 75 – Relative average number of children adjusted for age group, income, financial situation, living conditions and acute problems, separately for Kazakhstan (M2KZ) and Mongolia (M2MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate	Exp	Pr>ChiSq
M2KZ Kazakhstan	**Age group**				
	17–19 vs 25–29	–0.026	–25.7	0.0	0.9995
	35–40 vs 25–29***		1.41	4.1	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=0.97	1.85	6.4	0.0001
	Family income				
	Low vs no income		–0.03	1.0	0.8011
	Average vs no income		0.00	1.0	0.9979
	Higher vs no income		0.10	1.1	0.3974
	Financial situation				
	Perfect vs bad		–0.05	1.0	0.5705
	Good vs bad		0.15	1.2	0.2721
	Living conditions				
	Perfect vs bad		–0.07	0.9	0.7114
	Improved vs bad		–0.07	0.9	0.6659
	Without changes vs bad		0.02	1.1	0.9216
	Difficult answer vs bad		– 0.20	0.8	0.5863
	Acute problems				
	Low income vs unemployed women		–0.13	1.0	0.9496
	Unemployed husband vs unemployed women		–0.13	0.9	0.5337
	Family relationship vs unemployed women		–0.20	0.8	0.2868
	Lack of housing vs unemployed women		0.04	1.0	0.7660
	Poor housing conditions vs unemployed women		0.05	0.9	0.7310
	Low quality of medical services vs unemployed women		0.02	0.9	0.8311
	Health problems of a family member vs unemployed women		0.02	1.0	0.9020
	Expensive public transport vs unemployed women		1.09	0.9	0.5205
	Crime in the city vs unemployed women		–0.48	0.6	0.2590
	Lack of work of local authorities vs unemployed women*		1.22	3.4	0.0421
	Lack of free time vs unemployed women		–	–	–
	Lack of personal perspectives vs unemployed women		–	–	–
M2MG Mongolia	**Age group**				
	17–19 vs 25–29	0.025	–25.9	0.0	0.9996
	35–40 vs 25–29***		1.02	2.8	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***	μ=0.97	1.34	3.8	0.0001
	Family income				
	Low vs no income		0.21	1.2	0.0612
	Average vs no income		0.07	1.1	0.5456
	Higher vs no income		0.21	1.2	0.0779
	Financial situation				
	Perfect vs bad		–0.14	0.9	0.1506
	Good vs bad		–0.33	0.7	0.0155
	Living conditions				
	Perfect vs bad		– 0.09	0.9	0.5928
	Improved vs bad		– 0.17	0.8	0.1933
	Without changes vs bad		–0.20	0.8	0.1824
	Difficult answer vs bad		0.11	1.1	0.6175
	Acute problems				
	Low income vs unemployed women		0.06	1.1	0.5940
	Unemployed husband vs unemployed women*		–0.66	0.5	0.0050
	Family relationship vs unemployed women		–0.32	0.7	0.3769
	Lack of housing vs unemployed women		0.16	1.2	0.2912
	Poor housing conditions vs unemployed women		0.11	1.1	0.4028
	Low quality of medical services vs unemployed women*		0.28	1.3	0.0239
	Health problems of a family member vs unemployed women		0.06	1.2	0.5576
	Expensive public transport vs unemployed women		0.11	1.1	0.6774
	Crime in the city vs unemployed women		–0.12	0.9	0.7387
	Lack of work of local authorities vs unemployed women		–0.36	0.7	0.2983
	Lack of free time vs unemployed women		–0.05	1.0	0.9457
	Lack of personal perspectives vs unemployed women		0.11	0.9	0.7529

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* age group +b2* income +b3*finacy+b4*living condition +b5* acute problem

Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

11.3 Model III with variables related to reproductive intentions of respondents

Fertility depends on reproductive behaviour, intentions and motivation of people. In order to study fertility that reflects reproductive intentions of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia, it is necessary to study the value of children and the importance of this issue in the system of personal values. Respondents were asked about ideal, desired and planned number of children. Ideal number of children reflects socially accepted norms of reproductive behaviour. Desired number of children shows readiness to give birth to a certain number of children having all the necessary conditions. Planned number of children shows that people are thinking about their present living situation and future perspective changes in their family. The research hypotheses can be summarized in the following way: reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia will be different according to the age group of respondents.

Question 1*: What is the predicted average number of children of respondents at the age group of 25–29 years who plan to have 4 children and consider 4 children as ideal and desired number in Kazakhstan compared with Mongolia?* Also, we will investigate the differences between the reference parameters with other categories of variables. Table 5 represents the results of Poisson regression Model 3 on the expected average number of children for different categories of age groups of respondents and different values of variables related to reproductive intentions of respondents for ideal, planned and desired number of children. It is clearly seen from this table that predicted number of children of those women at the age group of 35–40 years compared with 25–29 years old women are expected to have on average exp 1.68=5.4 children is higher in Kazakhstan than in Mongolia with exp 1.35=3.9 children. On average the older age group of women versus younger age group is expected to have more children in Kazakhstan (exp 2.07=7.9 children) than in Mongolia (exp 1.77=5.9 children). The results of the Wald Chi-Square tests indicate that there is statistically significant difference between the categories of the age groups at the level of 0.1 %. The differences between the variables of respondents' reproductive intentions are not statistically significant. Predicted number of children for women who consider five children as an ideal number is higher compared with women who consider four children to be ideal (exp 0.18=1.2 children) in Kazakhstan. However, in Mongolia among all the categories of ideal number of children, the number of those who consider three children as ideal number is higher than those who consider four children to be ideal (exp –0.01=1.1 children), whereas in Kazakhstan exp only –0.77=0.5 children. Absolutely the same and higher predicted number of children of women who plan to have two children versus four children in both countries is 1.2 children. Slightly higher coefficient is shown for women from Mongolia who plan to have six children compared with women who would like to have four children (exp 0.28=1.3 children), whereas for Kazakhstan the coefficient is negative

exp –0.11=0.9 children. Women who desire to have more children versus four children are negatively related to the average number of children of women in both countries (exp 0.9 children). However, the number of women who desire to have three children versus women who would like to have four children is higher in Kazakhstan (exp 0.47=1.6 children) compared to Mongolia (exp 0.15=1.2 children). It means that such women from both countries are expected to have on average less than four children.

Table 76– Relative average number of children adjusted for age group, ideal, planned and desired number of children, separately for Kazakhstan (M3KZ) and Mongolia (M3MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1+b2+b3+b4	Exp b1+b2+b3 +b4	Pr>ChiSq
M3KZ Kazakhstan	**Age group**				
	17–19 vs 25–29	–0.339	–25.3	0.0	0.9995
	35–40 vs 25–29***	μ=0.71	1.68	5.4	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***		2.07	7.9	0.0001
	Ideal number of children				
	2 children vs 4 children		–0.04	1.0	0.9116
	3 children vs 4 children		–0.76	0.5	0.0863
	5 children vs 4 children		0.18	1.2	0.4137
	6 children vs 4 children		0.04	1.0	0.8731
	7 and more children vs 4 children		0.04	1.0	0.8841
	Planned number of children				
	2 children vs 4 children		0.22	1.2	0.3568
	3 children vs 4 children		0.19	1.2	0.3303
	5 children vs 4 children		–0.03	1.0	0.8648
	6 children vs 4 children		–0.11	0.9	0.6054
	7 and more children vs 4 children		–0.03	1.0	0.9080
	Desired number of children				
	2 children vs 4 children		0.40	0.7	0.3939
	3 children vs 4 children		0.47	1.6	0.3093
	5 children vs 4 children		–0.12	0.9	0.5761
	6 children vs 4 children		–0.15	0.9	0.4513
	7 and more children vs 4 children		–0.03	0.9	0.8794
M3MG Mongolia	**Age group**				
	17–19 vs 25–29	–0.194	–25.5	0.0	0.9996
	35–40 vs 25–29***	μ=0.83	1.35	3.9	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***		1.77	5.9	0.0001
	Ideal number of children				
	2 children vs 4 children		0.33	1.0	0.3810
	3 children vs 4 children		–0.01	1.1	0.9734
	5 children vs 4 children		–0.01	1.0	0.9542
	6 children vs 4 children		–0.09	0.9	0.7330
	7 and more children vs 4 children		0.36	1.4	0.2309
	Planned number of children				
	2 children vs 4 children		0.22	1.2	0.3665
	3 children vs 4 children		0.06	1.1	0.7639
	5 children vs 4 children		0.21	1.2	0.2657
	6 children vs 4 children		0.28	1.3	0.2648
	7 and more children vs 4 children		–0.14	0.9	0.6171
	Desired number of children				
	2 children vs 4 children		–0.31	0.7	0.4831
	3 children vs 4 children		0.14	1.2	0.6266
	5 children vs 4 children		–0.04	1.0	0.8315
	6 children vs 4 children		–0.33	0.7	0.1189
	7 and more children vs 4 children		–0.18	0.8	0.4154

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1*age group +b2*ideal number of children +b3*planned number of children +b4*desired number of children
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects
Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

The regression analysis of modeling with reproductive intentions of respondents does not prove our research hypothesis that reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Kazakhstan and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia will be different according to the age group of respondents. Reproductive behaviour of respondents from both countries is quite similar. Ideal number of children which reflects socially accepted norms of reproductive behaviour cannot influence the predicted average number of children. However, the desired number of children which shows readiness to give birth to a certain number of children having all the necessary conditions is negatively related to predicted mean number of children. Only planned number of children of repatriates shows that people are thinking about their present living situation and future perspective changes in their family which has a positive influence on fertility rates.

11.4 Model IV of respondents' attitudes

Planned behaviour is the link between attitudes and behaviour. It helps to understand how can people's behaviour change under certain factors. In our modeling we will try to examine individual factors of respondents such as values of children, attitudes about abortion and advice to unmarried pregnant women. The hypothesis that the new environment and society will influence moral and cultural values of repatriates will be summarized. It is also assumed that difficulties of migration will help to make cultural and traditional values and behaviour of repatriates stronger.

Question 1*: What is the predicted average number of children of respondents from Kazakhstan at the age group of 25–29 years who think that women must do abortion if fetus has anomaly or who advise unmarried pregnant mothers to get married because they consider children as a family's joy compared to ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia?* We will also investigate the differences between the reference parameters with other categories of variables. Table 6 represents the results of Poisson regression modeling on the average number of children for different categories of age groups of respondents and different values of variables including attitudes about abortion, advice of women to unmarried pregnant women and values of children. Model 4 shows that average number of children at the age group of 35–40 years is higher compared with 25–29 years old women in Kazakhstan (exp 1.14=3.1 children) than in Mongolia (exp 1.03=2.8 children). Older age group of repatriates compared with younger age group has higher positive coefficients (exp 1.58=4.9 children) than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (exp 1.32=3.7 children). The difference between the parameters is statistically significant at the level of 0.1 %. It means that older age groups are more positively related to predicted average number of children. Despite the positive coefficients of predicted number of children, the number of women who think that abortion is a serious influence on women's health is less compared with women who think that it is better to have an abortion than to have an unwanted

child (exp 0.37=0.9 children in Kazakhstan; exp 0.14=1.1 children in Mongolia). The difference between coefficients for Kazakhstan is statistically significant at the level of 1 %. Effect of other parameters on abortion is negative and approximately the same in both countries (1 child).

In order to prove the hypotheses that the new society influences repatriates and their reproductive behaviour which differ from those of ethnic Kazakhs, the respondents were asked the following question: "What would you advice to a single pregnant woman and her parents?" and respondents had to choose from the following answers: (1) to get married; (2) to have an abortion; (3) to give birth out of marriage; (4) other answer (own answer). All parameters of the variable 'advice of women to unmarried pregnant women' positively related to fertility. Therefore, predicted number of children in both countries is the same, however they are not statistically significant. More specifically, our model investigates 'value of children' among the respondents' opinions from different generations. We found that some parameters of value of children positively influenced predicted mean number of children. However, differences between the parameters are not statistically significant for both countries. No one in Mongolia thinks that children are the main reason for building a family, whereas in Kazakhstan there were no women who think that children are always the cause of big problems. Predicted number of children among the women who consider children to be a meaning of life compared with those who think that children are family's joy is the same in both countries (1.1 children).

Conclusion

The regression analysis of modeling with attitudes proves our research hypothesis that reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Kazakhstan and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia is different according to the age group of respondents and that the new environment influences them a lot. However, all other variables with attitudes show the same behaviour in both countries. Despite of the different values of attitudes about abortion, respondents who start seeing abortion as a medical procedure positively affect the mean number of children. Therefore, despite the age, Kazakh repatriates are more open-minded. Ethnic Kazakhs are more traditional and believe that a single pregnant woman has to get married. Behaviours of repatriates from Kazakhstan have been changing for the past 19 years after migration. They think that it is better for a single woman to give birth to a child, bring him/her up alone than have an abortion.

Table 77– Relative average number of children adjusted for age group, abortion, advice and value of children, separately for Kazakhstan (M4KZ) and Mongolia (M4MG)

Models	Parameter	Intercept	Estimate b1+b2+b3 +b4	Exp b1+b2+b3 +b4	Pr>ChiSq
M4KZ Kazakhstan	**Age group**				
	17–19 vs 25–29	0.115	21.9	0.0	0.9979
	35–40 vs 25–29***	μ=1.1	1.14	3.1	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***		1.58	4.9	0.0001
	Abortion				
	Medical operation vs fetus anomaly		0.37	0.9	0.0117
	Unwanted child vs fetus anomaly		–0.11	1.0	0.4053
	Not allowed vs fetus anomaly		–0.03	1.1	0.7166
	Advice				
	Abortion vs marriage		0.06	1.1	0.4826
	Give birth being single vs marriage		0.08	1.1	0.3828
	Another vs marriage		0.11	1.0	0.5978
	Value of children				
	Main condition of making family vs joy		–0.02	1.1	1.0000
	Meaning of life vs joy		0.11	1.1	0.3095
	Supported in older ages vs joy		0.08	1.1	0.3855
	Always a problem vs joy		–	–	–
	Saves from loneliness vs joy		–0.28	0.8	0.2484
M4MG Mongolia	**Age group**				
	17–19 vs 25–29	0.185	–25.0	0.0	0.9997
	35–40 vs 25–29***	μ=1.2	1.03	2.8	0.0001
	55–60 vs 25–29***		1.32	3.7	0.0001
	Abortion				
	Medical operation vs fetus anomaly		0.14	1.1	0.4248
	Unwanted child vs fetus anomaly		–0.03	1.1	0.8102
	Not allowed vs fetus anomaly		–0.00	1.0	0.9657
	Advice				
	Abortion vs marriage		–0.25	0.8	0.3127
	Give birth being single vs marriage		0.05	1.1	0.6259
	Another vs marriage		0.12	1.1	0.6859
	Value of children				
	Main condition of making family vs joy		–	–	–
	Meaning of life vs joy		–0.12	1.1	0.4238
	Supported in older ages vs joy		0.18	1.2	0.0680
	Always a problem vs joy		–0.15	0.9	0.8793
	Saves from loneliness vs joy		0.04	1.1	0.7771

Notes: log (mean number of children) = Intercept+ b1* age group +b2* ideal +b3*planned+b4*desired
Difference between distributions is significant at the level of: (*) 5 %, (**) 1 %, (***) 0.1 %.
Note (i): Analysis of maximum likelihood parameter estimates. Author's calculations in SAS
Note (ii): Red colored numbers are statistically insignificant. Green colored numbers show negative effects

Source: Own survey data

Conclusion

In this study we examined several different mechanisms of migration which can influence fertility and reproductive behaviour of repatriates. Reproductive behaviour of the second generation of repatriates (born and raised in Kazakhstan or born in Mongolia but moved to Kazakhstan during the first year of life) differs from other generations. It emerged that repatriates in Kazakhstan show behavioural differences compared to their peers among the ethnic Kazakhs who stayed in the countries of origin in Mongolia as a result of adaptation to cultural context at the place of destination. This is particularly true for the second generation migrants who got socialized in the receiving countries (Vitali, 2008).

In order to conclude the research results we divided our findings into two parts. First findings are from the descriptive analysis and second ones are from modeling with Poisson regression on the expected average number of children under certain factors. Note that in both parts of work we followed the same concepts. Answering the research questions set in the beginning of this thesis we came to the following findings and conclusions:

Research question 1: *What is the influence of repatriation on reproductive behaviour of women and what are the expected changes in repatriates' reproduction?* Hypotheses connected with childbearing of repatriates which decreased after their moving to Kazakhstan due to the new social environment and with the disruptions of repatriates' fertility after migration are not confirmed except for the second generation of repatriates. Despite the changes of their life after migration reproductive behaviour of the first generation of repatriates (at the age of 35–40 years) still has an orientation on having many children. They have more children and plan to have many children compared with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Elevated level of childbearing immediately after migration to Kazakhstan gives no immediate support for the notion of "disruptions" in childbearing in connection with migration. Our findings supported the study of Andersson in childbearing after migration among the foreign-born women in Sweden from the 1960s to the 1990s (Andersson, 2001).

Reproductive behaviour of repatriates at the age of 25–29 years in Kazakhstan who were born in Mongolia, but grew up and eventually got married in Kazakhstan (on arrival they were maximum 6–13 years old) was characterized by the postponement of marriage age and childbearing in comparison with ethnic Kazakhs of the same cohort who live in Mongolia. 50 % of repatriates in the age group of 25–29 years delay the childbearing. If taking into account marital status of repatriates, 41 % are single compared to only 24 % of ethnic Kazakhs who are

single. However, respondents from both countries consider the age of 22 as an ideal age to get married. There are no mixed marriages between local Kazakhs and repatriates. The analysis of the correlation between the actual number of children and educational level of mothers showed that women with higher education have less children and higher education itself influences repatriates' fertility rates. Generally, we may observe that there is some growth of individual values, such as education among the repatriates (at the age of 17–19 and 25–29 years) and ethnic Kazakhs.

Research question 2: *Does reproductive behaviour of repatriates differ in the new environment according to their living conditions?* Only a certain part of repatriates could fully integrate into the Kazakh society. Many of them still live in isolation (military barracks) where there are no conditions for a normal life. Fertility of repatriates augments after migration as they do not want to postpone this decision anymore or they wish a child to be born in the country of their ancestors and to become the citizen of Kazakhstan. We examined actual number of children born before and after migration by the age group of mothers. It was found that among the first generation of respondents at the age group of 35–40 years only 5 % had already had children before migrating to Kazakhstan and the rest 95 % gave birth after migration (Nurpeisova, 2010). However, they have fewer children than their parents. In spite of losing their social networks after migration repatriates continue to demonstrate the behavioural patterns of the old environment. Repatriates live separately concentrated in one place and it helps them to keep their old behaviour.

Research question 3: *Do new socio-economic and cultural conditions influence fertility in a positive or negative way?* Socio-economic and psychological difficulties connected with leaving the country and coming to a new one was difficult for repatriates who had already had children. However, social conditions in a new country, different programs to boost fertility can influence reproductive behaviour in a positive way. Despite of the fact that the returnees face sharp changes in their daily life conditions in Kazakhstan, new environment influences repatriates positively and they still continue to demonstrate behaviour of the old environment. It should be mentioned that Kazakh government expects repatriates to improve demographic situation in the country and it was justified.

Research question 4: *Are there some differences in reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethic Kazakhs in Mongolia?* Reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethic Kazakhs in Mongolia differ from each other. When we compared reproductive behaviour of repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs by the place of residence, we found that repatriates are more traditional than ethnic Kazakhs, but reproductive behaviour of urban and rural inhabitants does not differ. Ideal and desired number of children for repatriates and ethnic Kazakhs is determined by the norms that were inclined in parental family. Repatriates in Kazakhstan which grew up in families with many children demonstrated rather higher desire to have more children compared with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. We also found the evidence of selectivity among the older generations of repatriates at the age of 55–60 years (on arrival they were maximum 36–44 years old). We found strong evidence that the couples of older generation of repatriates who migrated to Kazakhstan (in 1991) have large families compared with ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia.

Research question 5: *What is the influence of migration, new environment and society on traditional values and behaviour of repatriates?* The following hypothesis was proved: the new environment and society will influence moral and cultural values of the second generation of repatriates. Poisson regression model with attitudes proves our research hypothesis that reproductive behaviour of respondetns from Kazakhstan and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia is different according to only age groups of respondents and the new environment influences them a lot. However, all other variables with attitudes show the same behaviour in both countries. Despite of the different values of attitudes about abortion, respondents who start seeing abortion as a medical procedure positively affect the mean number of children. Despite the age, Kazakh repatriates are more open-minded and they advice to have an abortion for single pregnant women. The behaviour of the second generation of repatriates from Kazakhstan has changed a lot during the last 19 years after migration (see Figure 40). The new environment influences them a lot. They advise to get married, to have an abortion or give birth as a single parent. Ethnic Kazakhs are more traditional and believe that a single pregnant woman has to get married. They cannot accept the fact that a single woman will give birth to a child, bring him/her up alone or have an abortion. However, women with higher education started to think more liberally and suggest that single pregnant women should give birth as a single parent and bring their children up themselves. However, repatriates with higher education suggest abortion as a way out. We also found that the main reasons for having children among the respondents in both countries are continuation of the bloodline, having support when retired and to ensure love and respect of a husband as the most important one. However, it is not possible to definitely say that the behaviour and cultural values of repatriates are dependent on the influence of the society they left because ethnic Kazakhs are different in their behaviour. Having migrated to the new society and environment and having faced many problems, repatriates began to value family relations (see Chapter 10.8). It is also assumed that difficulties of migration will help to make cultural and traditional values and behaviour of repatriates stronger. Repatriates try to save their marriages (see Chapter 10.3). Being single in a new country is very difficult for them. It means that repatriates keep giving birth to children even after moving to another country because children are the guarantors of a sound marriage, financial support of the state, supporters for the household and after the retirement. Economic value of children including social benefits from the state, help for the household, keeping a husband in the family and having a male child is very important for repatriates in Kazakhstan and less important for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (see Table 53a, Table 53b). Regardless of the number of children, getting social benefits from the state is the major stimulating reason for repatriates from Kazakhstan, i.e. economic reason prevails (see Table 56a, Table 56b). It proves the following hypothesis: when life standards are low, fertility may improve the standards of life (Malthus).

As the result of Poisson regression analysis we found that demographic variables such as education and the place of residence are negatively related to the predicted average number of children. However, the average number of children of repatriates is slightly higher compared to ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Socio-economic variables negatively affect the predicted average number of children in both countries. Reproductive behaviour of repatriates at the age group of 25–29 years who grew up in the new society is similar with that of ethic Kazakhs in Mongolia.

It means that under the impact of certain socio-economic factors women of younger generation will have less children in the future compared to their mothers. The results of Model III with reproductive intentions of respondents do not prove our research hypothesis that reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Kazakhstan differs from that of ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia. Reproductive behaviour of women at the age group of 25–29 years from both countries is quite similar. Ideal number of children which reflects socially accepted norms of reproductive behaviour and desired number of children which shows the readiness to give birth to a certain number of children having all the necessary conditions is negatively related to predicted mean number of children and negatively influences the predicted average number of children in both countries. Our controling variable of age group of respondents showed that repatriates from Kazakhstan have on average more children than ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia.

Thus, we may conclude that behaviour of the second generation of repatriates and young females residing in Kazakhstan is not homogenous. They show behavioural differences compared to their peers among the ethnic Kazakhs who stayed in the countries of origin in Mongolia and older generation. It depends on many socio-economic factors. Generally, among them we may observe that there is a growth of individual values, such as education. It means that they started accepting behaviour of local Kazakh society and will have less children in the future compared to their mothers. However, the analysis of repatriates' and ethnic Kazakhs' reproductive behaviour signaled us that reproductive behaviour of all the repatriates with the new place of residence in Kazakhstan is not completely formed under the influence of indigenous people's reproductive behaviour. Reproductive behaviour of repatriates from Mongolia and ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia showed that even if there is a positive development of fertility at the moment, reproductive behaviour of the second generation may affect this positive trend in the future.

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Appendix 1 – The number of population and ethnic composition of Kazakhstan according to census

Year	Total population (in thousands)	Titular population (in thousands)	%	Russians	%	Others	%
1989	16,199,2	6,496,9	40,1	6,062,0	37,4	3,640,2	22,5
1999	14,953,1	7,971,6	53,3	4,489,7	30,0	2,493,8	16,7
2009	16,196,8	10,986	63,6	3,797	23,3	1,414,8	13,1

Source: Alekseenko, A. N. (2008). Immigracia v Kazakhstane (1999–2005). (CAMMIG; Working Paper 3). University of Tayoma.

Appendix 2 – Quota for repatriation of ethnic Kazakhs

Year	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Number of repatriates families	10,000	7,000	5,000	4,000	2,200	3,000	500	500	600	2,655	5,000	10,000	15,000

Source: UNDP Kazakhstan, (2006). Status of oralmans in Kazakhstan.

Appendix 3 – Number of families repatriated from Mongolia in Karaganda region, 1991–1998

Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Number of repatriates family	3,012	7,396	3,311	38	58	180	76	218

Source: The Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Kazakhstan (unpublished data)

Appendix 4 – Information about oralmans, May 1st, 2009

Families	Person	The number of family farms		Citizinship RK (families)	Working age population		Self-employed		Unemployed	
		Plot of land	cattle		males	females	males	females	males	females
195	1099	95	720	189	397	200	290	95	107	105
Public sector employee	Pre-school age	Cattle in stock		School age	Enrolled at the school		Retirement age		Large family size	
21	82	Cattle	Sheeps	320	320		80		25	
Invalid	Working age population (youth)	400	320	Working age population	Retirement age		State support			
							UK	SGP	ASP	DSP
20	3			15	2		5	10	35	23

Source: Data from the Akimat of Zhairem district, 2009. Ispolnitel: Kapparova, B.

Appendix 5 – Distribution of the ideal number of children, sample, 2009 (%)

Ideal number of children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no answer	97	13.7	97	13.7
1child	0	0.0	0	0.0
2 children	27	3.8	124	17.5
3 children	49	6.9	173	24.4
4 children	244	34.4	417	58.7
5 children	117	16.5	534	75.2
6 children	105	14.8	639	90.0
7 children	18	2.5	657	92.5
8 children	29	4.1	686	96.6
9 children	1	0.1	687	96.8
10 children	21	3.0	708	99.7
11 children	1	0.1	709	99.9
12 children	0	0 .0	0	0.0
13 children	1	0.1	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

Appendix 6 – Distribution of the desired number of children, sample, 2009 (%)

Desired number of children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
no answer	136	19.2	136	19.2
1 child	0	0.0	0	0.0
2 children	22	3.1	158	22.3
3 children	40	5.6	198	27.9
4 children	208	29.3	406	57.2
5 children	93	13.1	499	70.3
6 children	95	13.4	594	83.6
7 children	17	2.4	611	86.1
8 children	49	6.9	660	92.9
9 children	0	0.0	0	0.0
10 children	49	6.9	709	99.9
11 children	1	0.1	710	100.0

Source: Own survey data

Appendix 7 – Ideal age at marriage for females and males according educational level of respondents, sample, 2009

Education	Country	Females	Males	SD for female	SD for male
Secondary	Kazakhstan	23	24	2.30	2.07
	Mongolia	22	24	1.55	2.24
Vocational	Kazakhstan	22	23	2.07	2.17
	Mongolia	22	24	1.52	1.87
Higher	Kazakhstan	22	24	1.84	1.74
	Mongolia	23	24	1.34	1.34
Total	Kazakhstan	22	24	2.11	2.04
	Mongolia	23	24	1.53	1.94

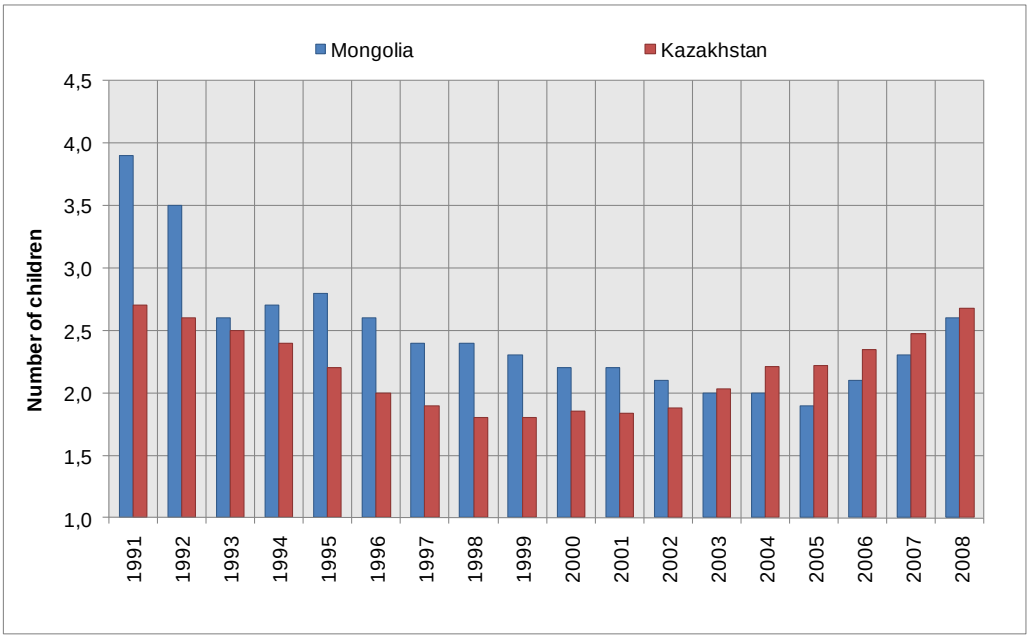
Source: Own survey data

Appendix 8 – Ideal age at marriage for females and males according to the age group of respondents, sample, 2009

Age group	Country	Females	Males	SD for female	SD for male
17–19	Kazakhstan	22	25	1.25	1.51
	Mongolia	23	24	1.34	1.10
25–29	Kazakhstan	22	24	1.81	1.92
	Mongolia	23	24	1.59	1.62
35–40	Kazakhstan	23	23	2.43	2.12
	Mongolia	22	24	1.48	2.51
55–60	Kazakhstan	23	23	2.32	2.32
	Mongolia	22	24	1.58	1.57
Total	Kazakhstan	22	24	2.11	2.04
	Mongolia	23	24	1.53	1.94

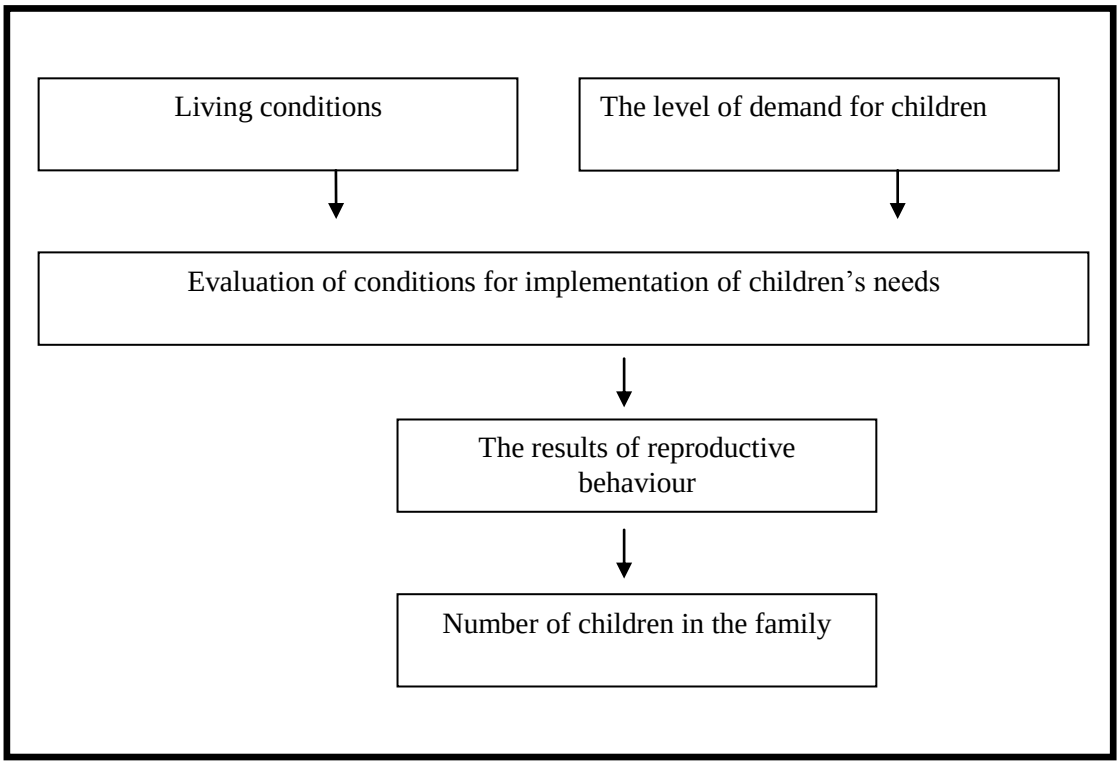
Source: Own survey data

Appendix 9 – Total fertility rate, Mongolia, Kazakhstan (1991–2008)



Source: Vital statistics

Appendix 10 – Regulation of reproductive behaviour of individuals



Source: Demograficheskу enciklopedicheskу slovar

Appendix 11 – Description of recoded variables and categories used

Variables name	Coding	Variables name	Coding
Country	1 Kazakhstan; 2 Mongolia;	4. children is the joy;	1 no; 2 yes;
X2N	1 urban areas; 2 rural areas; 3 remote areas;	5. always a problem	1 no; 2 yes;
		6. saves us from loneliness	1 no; 2 yes;
Agegr	1.17–19 years old; 2.25–29 years old; 3.35–40 years old; 4.55–60 years old;	**Advice**	1 marriage, 2 abortion, 3 to give birth, 4 another;
Nochild	1 children; 2 children; 3 children; 4 children; 5 children; 6 children; 7 children; 8 children; 9 children; 10 children;	**Abortion**	1 medical procedure; 2 unwanted child; 3 fetus anomaly; 4 not allowed;
		ideal7, desired7, planned7	2 children; 3 children; 4 children; 5 children; 6 children; 7 and more children;
Marstat	1 single; 2 married; 3 women without partners;	**problem_2** 1. low income; 2. unemployed respondent; 3. unemployed husband; 4. family relationship; 5. without own house; 6. poor housing condition; 7. low quality of medical service; 8. the problem of health of a family member; 9. expensive public transport; 10. crime in the city; 11. lack of work of local authorities on social support 12. lack of free time; 13. lack of personal perspectives	1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes;
eduz	1 secondary; 2 vocational; 3 higher;		
income	1 low; 2 average; 3 higher; 4 no income;		
Financy	1 perfect; 2 good; 3 bad;		
living10	1 perfect; 2 good; 3 without changes; 4 bad; 5 difficult to answer;		
value_2 1. main condition of making family 2. meaning of life/; 3. supporting in older ages;	1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes; 1 no; 2 yes;		

CENERALIZED REGRESSION MODEL

Following SAS procedures showed a way of for generalized regression model:

```
proc sort data=j.Data_4;
by country;
run;
```

by country:

```
ods html; title ' Generalized_Nochild_Planned';
proc logistic data=j.Data_4;
by country;
where planned7 and eduz and advice and abortion and income and reas_3
and reas_9 ne 0;
class place (ref='1') marstatk2 (ref='2') ideal7 (ref='4')advice
(ref='1')abortion (ref='2')value_1 (ref='1') reas_3 (ref='1')reas_9
(ref='1')agegrall (ref='2') eduz (ref='2') income (ref='1') financy
(ref='1') /param=ref;
model nochild1 (ref='2') = place marstatk2 planned7 agegrall eduz
income financy advice abortion value_1 reas_3 reas_9
/link=glogit clparm=both expb rsquare ctable;
run;(see Appendix 12);
```

Appendix 12 – The output of multinomial generalized logistic regression model, Kazakhstan

```
          Generalized_Nochild_Planned      11:53 Thursday, June 30, 2011  45
-- -- - - - - - - - - - - - COUNTRY=1 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
                                  -
                              The LOGISTIC Procedure
                                Model Information

                        Data Set                          J.DATA_4
                Response Variable              NOCHILD1              NOCHILD1
                          Number of Response Levels      4
                      Model                            generalized logit
                       Optimization Technique          Newton - Raphson

                           Number of Observations Read         124
                           Number of Observations Used         124

                                  Response Profile

                             Ordered                          Total
                              Value      NOCHILD1      Frequency

                                1            1             48
                                2            2             27
                                3            3             30
                                4            4             19

                    Logits modeled use NOCHILD1=2 as the reference category.

                                 Class Level Information
                              Class         Value             Design Variables

                              PLACE      1      0      0
                              2          1      0
                              3          0      1
                              MARSTATK2  1      1      0
                              2          0      0
                              3          0      1
                              PLANNED7   2      1      0      0      0      0
                              3          0      1      0      0      0
                              4          0      0      0      0      0
                              5          0      0      1      0      0
                              6          0      0      0      1      0
                              7          0      0      0      0      1
                              ADVICE     1      0      0      0
                              2          1      0      0
                              3          0      1      0
```

4	0	0	1		
ABORTION	1	1	0	0	
2	0	0	0		
3	0	1	0		
4	0	0	1		
VALUE_1	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	
2	0	1	0	0	
3	0	0	1	0	
4	0	0	0	1	
REAS_3	1	0	0		
2	1	0			
3	0	1			
REAS_9	1	0	0		
2	1	0			
3	0	1			
AGEGRALL	1	1	0	0	
2	0	0	0		
3	0	1	0		
4	0	0	1		
EDUZ	1	1	0		
2	0	0			
3	0	1			
INCOME	1	0	0	0	
2	1	0	0		
3	0	1	0		
4	0	0	1		
FINANCY	1	0	0		
2	1	0			
3	0	1			

Model Convergence Status

Quasi – complete separation of data points detected.
WARNING: The maximum likelihood estimate may not exist.
WARNING: The LOGISTIC procedure continues in spite of the above warning. Results shown are based on the last maximum likelihood iteration. Validity of the model fit is questionable.

Model Fit Statistics

Criterion	Intercept Only	Intercept and Covariates
AIC	335.859	342.521
SC	344.320	630.189
– 2 Log L	329.859	138.521

R – Square 0.7863 Max – rescaled R – Square 0.8454

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

Test	Chi – Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	191.3383	99	<.0001
Score	127.0429	99	0.0302
Wald	39.2550	99	1.0000

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq
PLACE	6	9.3748	0.1536
MARSTATK2	6	6.5686	0.3626
PLANNED7	15	12.7810	0.6192
AGEGRALL	9	13.5811	0.1380
EDUZ	6	13.7762	0.0322
INCOME	9	8.7389	0.4617
FINANCY	6	6.7946	0.3403
ADVICE	9	14.6057	0.1024
ABORTION	9	10.5047	0.3112
VALUE_1	12	12.3377	0.4190
REAS_3	6	10.1024	0.1204
REAS_9	6	3.0289	0.8052

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter		NOCHILD1	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq	Exp(Est)
Intercept		1	1	−4.6586	4.3985	1.1218	0.2895	0.009
Intercept		3	1	−38.8166	141.4	0.0754	0.7836	0.000
Intercept		4	1	−15.1535	7.3336	4.2696	0.0388	0.000
PLACE	2	1	1	7.0460	2.8619	6.0614	0.0138	1148.308
PLACE	2	3	1	4.0830	2.7142	2.2630	0.1325	59.325
PLACE	2	4	1	2.8905	2.8969	0.9956	0.3184	18.002
PLACE	3	1	1	3.0860	3.2604	0.8959	0.3439	21.889
PLACE	3	3	1	0.8606	2.9551	0.0848	0.7709	2.365
PLACE	3	4	1	−0.2843	3.0589	0.0086	0.9260	0.753
MARSTATK2	1	1	1	2.3129	2.1806	1.1251	0.2888	10.104
MARSTATK2	1	3	1	4.7926	4.5718	1.0989	0.2945	120.615
MARSTATK2	1	4	1	4.4522	3.5882	1.5395	0.2147	85.812
MARSTATK2	3	1	1	2.1554	2.7835	0.5996	0.4387	8.631
MARSTATK2	3	3	1	5.9320	3.2610	3.3091	0.0689	376.901
MARSTATK2	3	4	1	7.9042	3.4218	5.3359	0.0209	2708.712
PLANNED7	2	1	1	0.8047	8.5693	0.0088	0.9252	2.236
PLANNED7	2	3	1	7.6084	99.0256	0.0059	0.9388	2015.038
PLANNED7	2	4	1	−11.7169	515.5	0.0005	0.9819	0.000
PLANNED7	3	1	1	1.1589	1.8157	0.4074	0.5233	3.186
PLANNED7	3	3	1	−2.4461	2.4817	0.9715	0.3243	0.087
PLANNED7	3	4	1	0.3863	2.0787	0.0345	0.8526	1.472
PLANNED7	5	1	1	3.7667	1.9613	3.6884	0.0548	43.238
PLANNED7	5	3	1	−1.8217	2.0964	0.7551	0.3849	0.162
PLANNED7	5	4	1	0.6747	2.0175	0.1118	0.7381	1.963
PLANNED7	6	1	1	5.5505	2.6081	4.5291	0.0333	257.354
PLANNED7	6	3	1	4.5367	2.4878	3.3255	0.0682	93.385
PLANNED7	6	4	1	5.4862	2.6271	4.3610	0.0368	241.343
PLANNED7	7	1	1	7.0931	3.6117	3.8570	0.0495	1203.609
PLANNED7	7	3	1	3.6753	3.5808	1.0535	0.3047	39.461
PLANNED7	7	4	1	7.2205	3.6119	3.9963	0.0456	1367.236
AGEGRALL	1	1	1	−0.1138	2.0318	0.0031	0.9554	0.892
AGEGRALL	1	3	1	17.6895	141.1	0.0157	0.9002	48133790
AGEGRALL	1	4	1	−1.4680	2.8999	0.2563	0.6127	0.230
AGEGRALL	3	1	1	− 5.6315	1.9636	8.2255	0.0041	0.004
AGEGRALL	3	3	1	23.9863	141.1	0.0289	0.8650	2.613E10
AGEGRALL	3	4	1	2.7223	1.8658	2.1288	0.1446	15.215
AGEGRALL	4	1	1	−2.7810	2.3087	1.4511	0.2284	0.062
AGEGRALL	4	3	1	19.4037	141.1	0.0189	0.8906	2.6726E8
AGEGRALL	4	4	1	−3.4757	2.4862	1.9543	0.1621	0.031
EDUZ	1	1	1	−0.8485	1.8101	0.2197	0.6392	0.428
EDUZ	1	3	1	5.0111	1.9163	6.8383	0.0089	150.064
EDUZ	1	4	1	3.9064	1.8085	4.6653	0.0308	49.718
EDUZ	3	1	1	−2.7520	1.9319	2.0292	0.1543	0.064
EDUZ	3	3	1	4.4116	2.0542	4.6123	0.0317	82.400
EDUZ	3	4	1	3.7732	2.0163	3.5018	0.0613	43.520
INCOME	2	1	1	−1.2338	1.3667	0.8150	0.3667	0.291
INCOME	2	3	1	−0.4777	1.4190	0.1133	0.7364	0.620
INCOME	2	4	1	0.0736	1.5040	0.0024	0.9609	1.076
INCOME	3	1	1	−0.3043	1.6326	0.0347	0.8522	0.738
INCOME	3	3	1	3.6643	1.8343	3.9905	0.0458	39.028
INCOME	3	4	1	1.4707	1.7883	0.6763	0.4109	4.352
INCOME	4	1	1	−2.6636	2.0791	1.6412	0.2002	0.070
INCOME	4	3	1	2.2608	3.1475	0.5159	0.4726	9.590
INCOME	4	4	1	1.6559	2.2601	0.5368	0.4638	5.238
FINANCY	2	1	1	32.4600	206.4	0.0247	0.8750	1.251E14
FINANCY	2	3	1	35.3166	206.4	0.0293	0.8641	2.177E15
FINANCY	2	4	1	33.8868	206.4	0.0270	0.8696	5.21E14
FINANCY	3	1	1	−0.9990	1.4623	0.4667	0.4945	0.368
FINANCY	3	3	1	4.0521	1.8805	4.6430	0.0312	57.518
FINANCY	3	4	1	1.7687	1.6866	1.0998	0.2943	5.863
ADVICE	2	1	1	1.0771	1.3181	0.6676	0.4139	2.936
ADVICE	2	3	1	3.7129	1.8311	4.1115	0.0426	40.971
ADVICE	2	4	1	2.6392	2.0628	1.6369	0.2007	14.003
ADVICE	3	1	1	0.4381	1.3026	0.1131	0.7366	1.550
ADVICE	3	3	1	4.7001	1.7733	7.0249	0.0080	109.957
ADVICE	3	4	1	5.8592	2.0008	8.5755	0.0034	350.453
ADVICE	4	1	1	4.7962	2.9914	2.5707	0.1089	121.048
ADVICE	4	3	1	1.5515	2.4885	0.3887	0.5330	4.719
ADVICE	4	4	1	−12.0749	367.9	0.0011	0.9738	0.000
ABORTION	1	1	1	14.6310	415.6	0.0012	0.9719	2260323
ABORTION	1	3	1	21.4411	415.7	0.0027	0.9589	2.05E9
ABORTION	1	4	1	3.6626	681.3	0.0000	0.9957	38.963
ABORTION	3	1	1	3.7055	2.0887	3.1472	0.0761	40.670
ABORTION	3	3	1	5.4780	4.3496	1.5862	0.2079	239.367
ABORTION	3	4	1	3.7485	4.1047	0.8340	0.3611	42.459
ABORTION	4	1	1	2.4709	2.8801	0.7360	0.3909	11.833
ABORTION	4	3	1	8.2882	5.4438	2.3180	0.1279	3976.823
ABORTION	4	4	1	7.1925	4.8583	2.1917	0.1388	1329.461
VALUE_1	0	1	1	−1.8729	1.9679	0.9058	0.3412	0.154
VALUE_1	0	3	1	−5.8625	3.4201	2.9382	0.0865	0.003
VALUE_1	0	4	1	−2.1686	2.9509	0.5401	0.4624	0.114

VALUE_1	2	1	1	0.3792	2.1474	0.0312	0.8598	1.461
VALUE_1	2	3	1	−0.1334	2.0220	0.0044	0.9474	0.875
VALUE_1	2	4	1	0.6849	2.0680	0.1097	0.7405	1.984
VALUE_1	3	1	1	4.2451	2.8799	2.1728	0.1405	69.759
VALUE_1	3	3	1	2.6495	3.0910	0.7347	0.3914	14.147
VALUE_1	3	4	1	1.3264	3.1257	0.1801	0.6713	3.768
VALUE_1	4	1	1	−38.1568	408.1	0.0087	0.9255	0.000
VALUE_1	4	3	1	−14.6626	5.2621	7.7644	0.0053	0.000
VALUE_1	4	4	1	−26.8749	419.7	0.0041	0.9489	0.000
REAS_3	2	1	1	−2.9124	2.4167	1.4523	0.2282	0.054
REAS_3	2	3	1	−4.2613	2.8581	2.2230	0.1360	0.014
REAS_3	2	4	1	−1.3814	2.7003	0.2617	0.6089	0.251
REAS_3	3	1	1	−4.3910	3.4620	1.6086	0.2047	0.012
REAS_3	3	3	1	7.2648	3.2702	4.9353	0.0263	1429.127
REAS_3	3	4	1	6.9615	3.1401	4.9150	0.0266	1055.234
REAS_9	2	1	1	−2.0744	1.8838	1.2126	0.2708	0.126
REAS_9	2	3	1	0.2218	2.5050	0.0078	0.9295	1.248
REAS_9	2	4	1	−1.9131	2.2677	0.7117	0.3989	0.148
REAS_9	3	1	1	−0.4168	1.7031	0.0599	0.8067	0.659
REAS_9	3	3	1	2.1893	2.7194	0.6481	0.4208	8.929
REAS_9	3	4	1	−0.5071	2.3351	0.0472	0.8281	0.602

Odds Ratio Estimates

Effect		NOCHILD1	Point Estimate	95% Wald Confidence Limits	
PLACE	2 vs 1	1	>999.999	4.207	>999.999
PLACE	2 vs 1	3	59.325	0.290	>999.999
PLACE	2 vs 1	4	18.002	0.062	>999.999
PLACE	3 vs 1	1	21.889	0.037	>999.999
PLACE	3 vs 1	3	2.365	0.007	774.800
PLACE	3 vs 1	4	0.753	0.002	302.192
MARSTATK2	1 vs 2	1	10.104	0.141	725.443
MARSTATK2	1 vs 2	3	120.615	0.015	>999.999
MARSTATK2	1 vs 2	4	85.812	0.076	>999.999
MARSTATK2	3 vs 2	1	8.631	0.037	>999.999
MARSTATK2	3 vs 2	3	376.901	0.632	>999.999
MARSTATK2	3 vs 2	4	>999.999	3.312	>999.999
PLANNED7	2 vs 4	1	2.236	<0.001	>999.999
PLANNED7	2 vs 4	3	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
PLANNED7	2 vs 4	4	<0.001	<0.001	>999.999
PLANNED7	3 vs 4	1	3.186	0.091	111.893
PLANNED7	3 vs 4	3	0.087	<0.001	11.223
PLANNED7	3 vs 4	4	1.472	0.025	86.524
PLANNED7	5 vs 4	1	43.238	0.926	>999.999
PLANNED7	5 vs 4	3	0.162	0.003	9.848
PLANNED7	5 vs 4	4	1.963	0.038	102.415
PLANNED7	6 vs 4	1	257.354	1.551	>999.999
PLANNED7	6 vs 4	3	93.385	0.712	>999.999
PLANNED7	6 vs 4	4	241.343	1.401	>999.999
PLANNED7	7 vs 4	1	>999.999	1.014	>999.999
PLANNED7	7 vs 4	3	39.461	0.035	>999.999
PLANNED7	7 vs 4	4	>999.999	1.152	>999.999
AGEGRALL	1 vs 2	1	0.892	0.017	47.875
AGEGRALL	1 vs 2	3	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
AGEGRALL	1 vs 2	4	0.230	<0.001	67.737
AGEGRALL	3 vs 2	1	0.004	<0.001	0.168
AGEGRALL	3 vs 2	3	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
AGEGRALL	3 vs 2	4	15.215	0.393	589.400
AGEGRALL	4 vs 2	1	0.062	<0.001	5.719
AGEGRALL	4 vs 2	3	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
AGEGRALL	4 vs 2	4	0.031	<0.001	4.044
EDUZ	1 vs 2	1	0.428	0.012	14.867
EDUZ	1 vs 2	3	150.064	3.509	>999.999
EDUZ	1 vs 2	4	49.718	1.436	>999.999
EDUZ	3 vs 2	1	0.064	0.001	2.814
EDUZ	3 vs 2	3	82.400	1.470	>999.999
EDUZ	3 vs 2	4	43.520	0.836	>999.999
INCOME	2 vs 1	1	0.291	0.020	4.241
INCOME	2 vs 1	3	0.620	0.038	10.009
INCOME	2 vs 1	4	1.076	0.056	20.519
INCOME	3 vs 1	1	0.738	0.030	18.095
INCOME	3 vs 1	3	39.028	1.072	>999.999
INCOME	3 vs 1	4	4.352	0.131	144.841
INCOME	4 vs 1	1	0.070	0.001	4.102
INCOME	4 vs 1	3	9.590	0.020	>999.999
INCOME	4 vs 1	4	5.238	0.062	439.535
FINANCY	2 vs 1	1	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999

FINANCY	2 vs 1	3	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
FINANCY	2 vs 1	4	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
FINANCY	3 vs 1	1	0.368	0.021	6.469
FINANCY	3 vs 1	3	57.518	1.442	>999.999
FINANCY	3 vs 1	4	5.863	0.215	159.860
ADVICE	2 vs 1	1	2.936	0.222	38.883
ADVICE	2 vs 1	3	40.971	1.132	>999.999
ADVICE	2 vs 1	4	14.003	0.246	798.139
ADVICE	3 vs 1	1	1.550	0.121	19.907
ADVICE	3 vs 1	3	109.957	3.402	>999.999
ADVICE	3 vs 1	4	350.453	6.943	>999.999
ADVICE	4 vs 1	1	121.048	0.344	>999.999
ADVICE	4 vs 1	3	4.719	0.036	619.449
ADVICE	4 vs 1	4	<0.001	<0.001	>999.999
ABORTION	1 vs 2	1	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
ABORTION	1 vs 2	3	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
ABORTION	1 vs 2	4	38.963	<0.001	>999.999
ABORTION	3 vs 2	1	40.670	0.678	>999.999
ABORTION	3 vs 2	3	239.367	0.048	>999.999
ABORTION	3 vs 2	4	42.459	0.014	>999.999
ABORTION	4 vs 2	1	11.833	0.042	>999.999
ABORTION	4 vs 2	3	>999.999	0.092	>999.999
ABORTION	4 vs 2	4	>999.999	0.097	>999.999
VALUE_1	0 vs 1	1	0.154	0.003	7.272
VALUE_1	0 vs 1	3	0.003	<0.001	2.318
VALUE_1	0 vs 1	4	0.114	<0.001	37.154
VALUE_1	2 vs 1	1	1.461	0.022	98.291
VALUE_1	2 vs 1	3	0.875	0.017	46.044
VALUE_1	2 vs 1	4	1.984	0.034	114.217
VALUE_1	3 vs 1	1	69.759	0.247	>999.999
VALUE_1	3 vs 1	3	14.147	0.033	>999.999
VALUE_1	3 vs 1	4	3.768	0.008	>999.999
VALUE_1	4 vs 1	1	<0.001	<0.001	>999.999
VALUE_1	4 vs 1	3	<0.001	<0.001	0.013
VALUE_1	4 vs 1	4	<0.001	<0.001	>999.999
REAS_3	2 vs 1	1	0.054	<0.001	6.198
REAS_3	2 vs 1	3	0.014	<0.001	3.820
REAS_3	2 vs 1	4	0.251	0.001	49.953
REAS_3	3 vs 1	1	0.012	<0.001	10.963
REAS_3	3 vs 1	3	>999.999	2.352	>999.999
REAS_3	3 vs 1	4	>999.999	2.241	>999.999
REAS_9	2 vs 1	1	0.126	0.003	5.042
REAS_9	2 vs 1	3	1.248	0.009	169.256
REAS_9	2 vs 1	4	0.148	0.002	12.572
REAS_9	3 vs 1	1	0.659	0.023	18.565
REAS_9	3 vs 1	3	8.929	0.043	>999.999
REAS_9	3 vs 1	4	0.602	0.006	58.540

Profile Likelihood Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter		NOCHILD1	Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept		1	-4.6586	-14.2848	3.3387
Intercept		3	-38.8166	.	-12.1797
Intercept		4	-15.1535	-31.3217	-2.8409
PLACE	2	1	7.0460	2.5674	13.8344
PLACE	2	3	4.0830	-0.6546	10.0699
PLACE	2	4	2.8905	-2.3213	9.0886
PLACE	3	1	3.0860	-2.5555	10.3383
PLACE	3	3	0.8606	-4.5899	7.0530
PLACE	3	4	-0.2843	-5.9414	6.0268
MARSTATK2	1	1	2.3129	-1.8572	6.8783
MARSTATK2	1	3	4.7926	-3.5836	15.0220
MARSTATK2	1	4	4.4522	-2.1991	11.8910
MARSTATK2	3	1	2.1554	-3.1644	8.1135
MARSTATK2	3	3	5.9320	0.1640	13.3724
MARSTATK2	3	4	7.9042	1.8923	15.6700
PLANNED7	2	1	0.8047	-9.8970	13.9935
PLANNED7	2	3	7.6084	-6.8972	.
PLANNED7	2	4	-11.7169	.	8.6585
PLANNED7	3	1	1.1589	-2.3245	4.9536
PLANNED7	3	3	-2.4461	-7.7359	2.3339
PLANNED7	3	4	0.3863	-3.7383	4.5742
PLANNED7	5	1	3.7667	0.3462	8.1846
PLANNED7	5	3	-1.8217	-6.3616	2.1130
PLANNED7	5	4	0.6747	-3.3808	4.7297
PLANNED7	6	1	5.5505	1.1713	11.5753

PLANNED7	6	3	4.5367	0.2787	10.1564
PLANNED7	6	4	5.4862	1.0012	11.4100
PLANNED7	7	1	7.0931	0.8474	15.4702
PLANNED7	7	3	3.6753	-2.7181	11.8727
PLANNED7	7	4	7.2205	1.0880	15.7077
AGEGRALL	1	1	-0.1138	-4.0824	4.1476
AGEGRALL	1	3	17.6895	-1.3051	.
AGEGRALL	1	4	-1.4680	-7.1722	4.3665
AGEGRALL	3	1	-5.6315	-10.1598	-2.2761
AGEGRALL	3	3	23.9863	5.1612	.
AGEGRALL	3	4	2.7223	-0.6896	6.7360
AGEGRALL	4	1	-2.7810	-7.6459	1.6188
AGEGRALL	4	3	19.4037	0.9681	.
AGEGRALL	4	4	-3.4757	-8.6929	1.2394
EDUZ	1	1	-0.8485	-4.6798	2.6466
EDUZ	1	3	5.0111	1.6795	9.3024
EDUZ	1	4	3.9064	0.6375	7.8934
EDUZ	3	1	-2.7520	-7.1861	0.7065
EDUZ	3	3	4.4116	0.7292	8.9536
EDUZ	3	4	3.7732	0.1008	8.1862
INCOME	2	1	-1.2338	-4.2003	1.3257
INCOME	2	3	-0.4777	-3.3159	2.3688
INCOME	2	4	0.0736	-2.9195	3.1178
INCOME	3	1	-0.3043	-3.6900	2.9112
INCOME	3	3	3.6643	0.3625	7.6272
INCOME	3	4	1.4707	-1.9587	5.1948
INCOME	4	1	-2.6636	-7.3985	1.5104
INCOME	4	3	2.2608	-4.3171	8.6973
INCOME	4	4	1.6559	-2.6605	6.4275
FINANCY	2	1	32.4600	10.9762	.
FINANCY	2	3	35.3166	14.0753	.
FINANCY	2	4	33.8868	11.8327	.
FINANCY	3	1	-0.9990	-4.1037	1.8003
FINANCY	3	3	4.0521	0.7499	8.1743
FINANCY	3	4	1.7687	-1.4162	5.2894
ADVICE	2	1	1.0771	-1.5103	3.8129
ADVICE	2	3	3.7129	0.3204	7.6961
ADVICE	2	4	2.6392	-1.3151	7.0373
ADVICE	3	1	0.4381	-2.1476	3.0685
ADVICE	3	3	4.7001	1.6727	8.6848
ADVICE	3	4	5.8592	2.4942	10.4412
ADVICE	4	1	4.7962	-0.2546	12.0246
ADVICE	4	3	1.5515	-3.4835	6.7544
ADVICE	4	4	-12.0749	.	3.5824
ABORTION	1	1	14.6310	-3.0982	.
ABORTION	1	3	21.4411	-1.6178	.
ABORTION	1	4	3.6626	.	.
ABORTION	3	1	3.7055	0.0380	8.4518
ABORTION	3	3	5.4780	-1.9523	15.1927
ABORTION	3	4	3.7485	-3.3411	12.7642
ABORTION	4	1	2.4709	-2.7582	8.6078
ABORTION	4	3	8.2882	-0.5446	20.7713
ABORTION	4	4	7.1925	-0.7310	18.4885
VALUE_1	0	1	-1.8729	-5.9467	1.9776
VALUE_1	0	3	-5.8625	-13.0648	0.4160
VALUE_1	0	4	-2.1686	-8.2436	3.6031
VALUE_1	2	1	0.3792	-3.9943	4.5383
VALUE_1	2	3	-0.1334	-4.1506	4.0152
VALUE_1	2	4	0.6849	-3.3181	4.9348
VALUE_1	3	1	4.2451	-0.8696	10.6332
VALUE_1	3	3	2.6495	-3.2734	9.3758
VALUE_1	3	4	1.3264	-4.7420	8.0595
VALUE_1	4	1	-38.1568	.	-14.9808
VALUE_1	4	3	-14.6626	-26.5232	-5.5123
VALUE_1	4	4	-26.8749	.	-6.8669
REAS_3	2	1	-2.9124	-8.5205	1.1544
REAS_3	2	3	4.2613	-10.7684	0.7379
REAS_3	2	4	-1.3814	-7.1642	3.6769
REAS_3	3	1	-4.3910	-12.7721	1.2763
REAS_3	3	3	7.2648	1.6176	14.4893
REAS_3	3	4	6.9615	1.4710	13.9176
REAS_9	2	1	-2.0744	-5.9754	1.6623
REAS_9	2	3	0.2218	-4.6899	5.5194
REAS_9	2	4	-1.9131	-6.5974	2.5267
REAS_9	3	1	-0.4168	-3.6964	3.0969
REAS_9	3	3	2.1893	-2.8307	7.8737
REAS_9	3	4	-0.5071	-5.2603	3.9928

Wald Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter		NOCHILD1	Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept		1	-4.6586	-13.2794	3.9623
Intercept		3	-38.8166	-315.9	238.2
Intercept		4	-15.1535	-29.5272	-0.7799
PLACE	2	1	7.0460	1.4368	12.6553
PLACE	2	3	4.0830	-1.2367	9.4027
PLACE	2	4	2.8905	-2.7873	8.5682
PLACE	3	1	3.0860	-3.3043	9.4762
PLACE	3	3	0.8606	-4.9313	6.6526
PLACE	3	4	-0.2843	-6.2796	5.7111
MARSTATK2	1	1	2.3129	-1.9610	6.5868
MARSTATK2	1	3	4.7926	-4.1679	13.7531
MARSTATK2	1	4	4.4522	-2.5806	11.4850
MARSTATK2	3	1	2.1554	-3.3001	7.6109
MARSTATK2	3	3	5.9320	-0.4594	12.3234
MARSTATK2	3	4	7.9042	1.1976	14.6108
PLANNED7	2	1	0.8047	-15.9907	17.6001
PLANNED7	2	3	7.6084	-186.5	201.7
PLANNED7	2	4	-11.7169	-1022.0	998.6
PLANNED7	3	1	1.1589	-2.3997	4.7175
PLANNED7	3	3	-2.4461	-7.3101	2.4180
PLANNED7	3	4	0.3863	-3.6878	4.4604
PLANNED7	5	1	3.7667	-0.0774	7.6108
PLANNED7	5	3	-1.8217	-5.9307	2.2872
PLANNED7	5	4	0.6747	-3.2796	4.6290
PLANNED7	6	1	5.5505	0.4387	10.6622
PLANNED7	6	3	4.5367	-0.3393	9.4127
PLANNED7	6	4	5.4862	0.3372	10.6353
PLANNED7	7	1	7.0931	0.0143	14.1718
PLANNED7	7	3	3.6753	-3.3429	10.6935
PLANNED7	7	4	7.2205	0.1413	14.2998
AGEGRALL	1	1	-0.1138	-4.0961	3.8686
AGEGRALL	1	3	17.6895	-258.9	294.2
AGEGRALL	1	4	-1.4680	-7.1516	4.2156
AGEGRALL	3	1	-5.6315	-9.4800	-1.7830
AGEGRALL	3	3	23.9863	-252.6	300.6
AGEGRALL	3	4	2.7223	-0.9346	6.3791
AGEGRALL	4	1	-2.7810	-7.3059	1.7439
AGEGRALL	4	3	19.4037	-257.2	296.0
AGEGRALL	4	4	-3.4757	-8.3485	1.3972
EDUZ	1	1	-0.8485	-4.3961	2.6992
EDUZ	1	3	5.0111	1.2553	8.7669
EDUZ	1	4	3.9064	0.3617	7.4510
EDUZ	3	1	-2.7520	-6.5384	1.0344
EDUZ	3	3	4.4116	0.3855	8.4377
EDUZ	3	4	3.7732	-0.1787	7.7252
INCOME	2	1	-1.2338	-3.9124	1.4449
INCOME	2	3	-0.4777	-3.2590	2.3035
INCOME	2	4	0.0736	-2.8741	3.0214
INCOME	3	1	-0.3043	-3.5042	2.8956
INCOME	3	3	3.6643	0.0691	7.2595
INCOME	3	4	1.4707	-2.0343	4.9756
INCOME	4	1	-2.6636	-6.7386	1.4114
INCOME	4	3	2.2608	-3.9083	8.4298
INCOME	4	4	1.6559	-2.7738	6.0857
FINANCY	2	1	32.4600	-372.0	437.0
FINANCY	2	3	35.3166	-369.2	439.8
FINANCY	2	4	33.8868	-370.6	438.4
FINANCY	3	1	-0.9990	-3.8651	1.8670
FINANCY	3	3	4.0521	0.3663	7.7379
FINANCY	3	4	1.7687	-1.5369	5.0743
ADVICE	2	1	1.0771	-1.5065	3.6606
ADVICE	2	3	3.7129	0.1240	7.3018
ADVICE	2	4	2.6392	-1.4038	6.6823
ADVICE	3	1	0.4381	-2.1149	2.9911
ADVICE	3	3	4.7001	1.2245	8.1757
ADVICE	3	4	5.8592	1.9377	9.7808
ADVICE	4	1	4.7962	-1.0668	10.6592
ADVICE	4	3	1.5515	-3.3258	6.4288
ADVICE	4	4	-12.0749	-733.1	708.9
ABORTION	1	1	14.6310	-800.0	829.2
ABORTION	1	3	21.4411	-793.2	836.1
ABORTION	1	4	3.6626	-1331.6	1338.9

ABORTION	3	1	3.7055	-0.3883	7.7994
ABORTION	3	3	5.4780	-3.0470	14.0030
ABORTION	3	4	3.7485	-4.2965	11.7935
ABORTION	4	1	2.4709	-3.1740	8.1158
ABORTION	4	3	8.2882	-2.3815	18.9579
ABORTION	4	4	7.1925	-2.3296	16.7147
VALUE_1	0	1	-1.8729	-5.7298	1.9841
VALUE_1	0	3	-5.8625	-12.5658	0.8408
VALUE_1	0	4	-2.1686	-7.9523	3.6151
VALUE_1	2	1	0.3792	-3.8296	4.5879
VALUE_1	2	3	-0.1334	-4.0964	3.8296
VALUE_1	2	4	0.6849	-3.3682	4.7381
VALUE_1	3	1	4.2451	-1.3994	9.8895
VALUE_1	3	3	2.6495	-3.4088	8.7078
VALUE_1	3	4	1.3264	-4.7999	7.4528
VALUE_1	4	1	-38.1568	-838.1	761.8
VALUE_1	4	3	-14.6626	-24.9761	-4.3491
VALUE_1	4	4	-26.8749	-849.4	795.7
REAS_3	2	1	-2.9124	-7.6489	1.8242
REAS_3	2	3	-4.2613	-9.8630	1.3404
REAS_3	2	4	-1.3814	-6.6740	3.9111
REAS_3	3	1	-4.3910	-11.1765	2.3945
REAS_3	3	3	7.2648	0.8554	13.6742
REAS_3	3	4	6.9615	0.8071	13.1160
REAS_9	2	1	-2.0744	-5.7666	1.6178
REAS_9	2	3	0.2218	-4.6879	5.1314
REAS_9	2	4	-1.9131	-6.3576	2.5315
REAS_9	3	1	-0.4168	-3.7549	2.9213
REAS_9	3	3	2.1893	-3.1406	7.5191
REAS_9	3	4	-0.5071	-5.0839	4.0697

Source: Own survey data

Note: Author's calculations by SAS

STEPWISE SELECTION METHOD:

by country:

```
ods html; title ' Generalized_stepwise_Nochild_Ideal';
proc logistic data=j.Data_4;
by country;
where ideal7 and eduz and advice and abortion and income and reas_3
and reas_9 ne 0;
class place (ref='1') marstatk2 (ref='2') ideal7 (ref='4')advice
(ref='1')abortion (ref='2')value_1 (ref='1') reas_3 (ref='1')reas_9
(ref='1')agegrall (ref='2') eduz (ref='2') income (ref='1') financy
(ref='1') /param=ref;
model nochild1 (ref='2') = place marstatk2 ideal7 agegrall eduz income
financy advice abortion value_1 reas_3 reas_9
/link=glogit selection=stepwise clparm=both expb rsquare ctable;
run; (see Appendix 13 );
```

Appendix 13 – The output of multinomial genelerlized logistic regression model by stepwise selection methods, Mongolia

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\- - - - - - - - - - - - - - COUNTRY=2 - - - - - - - - - - - -

The LOGISTIC Procedure

Model Information

Data Set	J.DATA_4
Response Variable	NOCHILD1 NOCHILD1
Number of Response Levels	4
Model	generalized logit
Optimization Technique	Newton – Raphson

Number of Observations Read	139
Number of Observations Used	139

Response Profile

Ordered Value	NOCHILD1	Total Frequency
1	1	34
2	2	31
3	3	54
4	4	20

Logits modeled use NOCHILD1=2 as the reference category.

Stepwise Selection Procedure
Class Level Information

Class	Value	Design Variables				
PLACE	1	0	0			
	2	1	0			
	3	0	1			
MARSTATK2	1	1	0			
	2	0	0			
	3	0	1			
IDEAL7	2	1	0	0	0	0
	3	0	1	0	0	0
	4	0	0	0	0	0
	5	0	0	1	0	0
	6	0	0	0	1	0
	7	0	0	0	0	1
ADVICE	1	0	0	0		
	2	1	0	0		
	3	0	1	0		
	4	0	0	1		
ABORTION	1	1	0	0		
	2	0	0	0		
	3	0	1	0		
	4	0	0	1		
VALUE_1	0	1	0	0		
	1	0	0	0		
	2	0	1	0		
	3	0	0	1		
REAS_3	1	0	0			
	2	1	0			
	3	0	1			
REAS_9	1	0	0			
	2	1	0			
	3	0	1			
AGEGRALL	1	1	0	0		
	2	0	0	0		
	3	0	1	0		
	4	0	0	1		
EDUZ	1	1	0			
	2	0	0			
	3	0	1			
INCOME	1	0	0	0		

```
                                    2          1       0       0
                                    3          0       1       0
                                    4          0       0       1
                                FINANCY        1           0       0
                                    2          1       0
                                               3           0       1
                            Step  0. Intercepts entered:
                              Model Convergence Status

                    Convergence criterion (GCONV=1E - 8) satisfied.

                                  - 2 Log L = 368.444

                               Residual Chi - Square Test

                          Chi - Square       DF     Pr > ChiSq

                            131.5781       96         0.0093

                            Step  1. Effect AGEGRALL entered:
                                Model Convergence Status

                    Convergence criterion (GCONV=1E - 8) satisfied.

                                  Model Fit Statistics

                                         Intercept
                                Intercept            and
                          Criterion          Only     Covariates

                          AIC              374.444        337.542
                          SC               383.248        372.755
                          - 2 Log L         368.444         313.542

                R - Square    0.3263    Max - rescaled R - Square    0.3511

                           Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

                 Test                 Chi - Square       DF     Pr > ChiSq

                  Likelihood Ratio        54.9027        9         <.0001
                  Score                   52.4035        9         <.0001
                  Wald                    37.5542        9         <.0001

                               Residual Chi - Square Test

                          Chi - Square       DF     Pr > ChiSq

                             87.8140       87         0.4554

                    NOTE: No effects for the model in Step 1 are removed.
                              Step  2. Effect MARSTATK2 entered:
                                Model Convergence Status
                     Quasi - complete separation of data points detected.
WARNING: The maximum likelihood estimate may not exist.
WARNING: The LOGISTIC procedure continues in spite of the above warning.
Results shown are based on the last maximum likelihooditeration. Validity of the model
fit is questionable.

                                  Model Fit Statistics

                                         Intercept
                                Intercept            and
                          Criterion          Only     Covariates

                          AIC              374.444        328.933
                          SC               383.248        381.754
                          - 2 Log L         368.444         292.933

                R - Square    0.4191    Max - rescaled R - Square    0.4510

                           Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

                 Test                 Chi - Square       DF     Pr > ChiSq

                  Likelihood Ratio        75.5110       15         <.0001
                  Score                   68.1117       15         <.0001
```

Wald	34.9576	15	0.0025

Residual Chi – Square Test

Chi – Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
75.6707	81	0.6464

Step 3. Effect MARSTATK2 is removed:

Model Convergence Status

Convergence criterion (GCONV=1E – 8) satisfied.

Model Fit Statistics

Criterion	Intercept Only	Intercept and Covariates
AIC	374.444	337.542
SC	383.248	372.755
– 2 Log L	368.444	313.542

R – Square 0.3263 Max – rescaled R – Square 0.3511

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

Test	Chi – Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	54.9027	9	<.0001
Score	52.4035	9	<.0001
Wald	37.5542	9	<.0001

Residual Chi – Square Test

Chi – Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
87.8140	87	0.4554

NOTE: No effects for the model in Step 3 are removed.
NOTE: Model building terminates because the last effect entered is removed by the Wald statistic criterion.
WARNING: The validity of the model fit is questionable.

Summary of Stepwise Selection

Step	Effect Entered	Effect Removed	Number DF	Number In	Score Chi – Square	Wald Chi – Square	Variable Pr > ChiSq
1	AGEGRALL		9	1	52.4035		<.0001
2	MARSTATK2		6	2	15.8987		0.0143
3	MARSTATK2		6	1	2.4545		0.8735

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq
AGEGRALL	9	37.5542	<.0001

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	NOCHILD1	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq	Exp(Est)
Intercept	1	1	1.7918	0.6236	8.2553	0.0041	6.000
Intercept	3	1	0.8473	0.6901	1.5076	0.2195	2.333
Intercept	4	1	0.2877	0.7638	0.1419	0.7064	1.333
AGEGRALL 1	1	1	–1.3863	0.8975	2.3857	0.1225	0.250
AGEGRALL 1	3	1	–0.0364	0.9150	0.0016	0.9683	0.964
AGEGRALL 1	4	1	–0.2877	1.0408	0.0764	0.7822	0.750
AGEGRALL 3	1	1	–4.1897	0.9666	18.7867	<.0001	0.015
AGEGRALL 3	3	1	–0.4418	0.7429	0.3537	0.5520	0.643
AGEGRALL 3	4	1	–1.9924	0.9374	4.5173	0.0336	0.136
AGEGRALL 4	1	1	–0.4055	1.0069	0.1621	0.6872	0.667
AGEGRALL 4	3	1	0.0690	1.0845	0.0040	0.9493	1.071
AGEGRALL 4	4	1	1.0986	1.0992	0.9989	0.3176	3.000

Odds Ratio Estimates

Effect	Point NOCHILD1	95% Wald Estimate	Confidence Limits	
AGEGRALL 1 vs 2	1	0.250	0.043	1.452
AGEGRALL 1 vs 2	3	0.964	0.160	5.795
AGEGRALL 1 vs 2	4	0.750	0.098	5.768
AGEGRALL 3 vs 2	1	0.015	0.002	0.101
AGEGRALL 3 vs 2	3	0.643	0.150	2.757
AGEGRALL 3 vs 2	4	0.136	0.022	0.856
AGEGRALL 4 vs 2	1	0.667	0.093	4.797
AGEGRALL 4 vs 2	3	1.071	0.128	8.977
AGEGRALL 4 vs 2	4	3.000	0.348	25.870

WARNING: The validity of the model fit is questionable.

Profile Likelihood Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter	NOCHILD1	Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept	1	1.7918	0.7085	3.2429
Intercept	3	0.8473	-0.4328	2.3820
Intercept	4	0.2877	-1.2243	1.9121
AGEGRALL 1	1	-1.3863	-3.2526	0.3611
AGEGRALL 1	3	-0.0364	-1.9121	1.7694
AGEGRALL 1	4	-0.2877	-2.4043	1.7685
AGEGRALL 3	1	-4.1897	-6.3887	-2.4962
AGEGRALL 3	3	-0.4418	-2.0562	0.9513
AGEGRALL 3	4	-1.9924	-3.9550	-0.1876
AGEGRALL 4	1	-0.4055	-2.3860	1.7588
AGEGRALL 4	3	0.0690	-2.0658	2.3564
AGEGRALL 4	4	1.0986	-1.0313	3.4373

Wald Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter	NOCHILD1	Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept	1	1.7918	0.5695	3.0140
Intercept	3	0.8473	-0.5052	2.1998
Intercept	4	0.2877	-1.2093	1.7846
AGEGRALL 1	1	-1.3863	-3.1454	0.3728
AGEGRALL 1	3	-0.0364	-1.8298	1.7571
AGEGRALL 1	4	-0.2877	-2.3277	1.7523
AGEGRALL 3	1	-4.1897	-6.0842	-2.2951
AGEGRALL 3	3	-0.4418	-1.8980	1.0143
AGEGRALL 3	4	-1.9924	-3.8298	-0.1551
AGEGRALL 4	1	-0.4055	-2.3790	1.5681
AGEGRALL 4	3	0.0690	-2.0566	2.1946
AGEGRALL 4	4	1.0986	-1.0559	3.2531

Source: Own survey data

Note: Author's calculations by SAS

CUMULATRD REGRESSION MODEL

The next Sas procedures showed a way of for multinomial cumulated regression model:

```
proc sort data=j.Data_4;
by country;
run;

ods html; title ' Cumulative_Nochild_Ideal';
proc logistic data=j.Data_4;
by country;
where ideal7 and eduz and advice and abortion and income and reas_3
and reas_9 ne 0;
class place (ref='1') marstatk2 (ref='2') ideal7 (ref='4')advice
(ref='1')abortion (ref='2')value_1 (ref='1') reas_3 (ref='1')reas_9
(ref='1')agegrall (ref='2') eduz (ref='2') income (ref='1') financy
(ref='1') /param=ref;
```

```
model nochild1 (ref='2') = place marstatk2 ideal7 agegrall eduz income
financy advice abortion  value_1 reas_3 reas_9
/clparm=both expb rsquare ctable;
run; (see Appendix 14);
```

Appendix 14 – The output of multinomial cumulated logistic regression model, Kazakhstan

```
        Cumulative_Nochild_Ideal    11:53 Thursday, June 30, 2011  78
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - COUNTRY=1 - - - - - - - - - - - -
                          The LOGISTIC Procedure
                           Model Information
                    Data Set                      J.DATA_4
                    Response Variable             NOCHILD1
                      NOCHILD1
                    Number of Response Levels     4
                    Model                         cumulative logit
                    Optimization Technique        Fisher's scoring

                Number of Observations Read         140
                Number of Observations Used         140

                          Response Profile

                 Ordered                      Total
                  Value     NOCHILD1     Frequency

                    1           1           59
                    2           2           29
                    3           3           32
                    4           4           20

      Probabilities modeled are cumulated over the lower Ordered Values.

                          Class Level Information

            Class         Value            Design Variables

                   PLACE          1          0      0
                                  2          1      0
                                  3          0      1
                   MARSTATK2      1          1      0
                                  2          0      0
                                  3          0      1
                   IDEAL7         2          1      0      0      0      0
                                  3          0      1      0      0      0
                                  4          0      0      0      0      0
                                  5          0      0      1      0      0
                                  6          0      0      0      1      0
                                  7          0      0      0      0      1
                   ADVICE         1          0      0      0
                                  2          1      0      0
                                  3          0      1      0
                                  4          0      0      1
                   ABORTION       1          1      0      0
                                  2          0      0      0
                                  3          0      1      0
                                  4          0      0      1
                   VALUE_1        0          1      0      0      0
                                  1          0      0      0      0
                                  2          0      1      0      0
                                  3          0      0      1      0
                                  4          0      0      0      1
                    REAS_3        1          0      0
                                  2          1      0
                                  3          0      1
                   REAS_9         1          0      0
                                  2          1      0
                                  3          0      1
                   AGEGRALL       1          1      0      0
                                  2          0      0      0
                                  3          0      1      0
                                  4          0      0      1
                   EDUZ           1          1      0
                                  2          0      0
                                  3          0      1
```

INCOME	1	0	0	0
	2	1	0	0
	3	0	1	0
	4	0	0	1
FINANCY	1	0	0	
	2	1	0	
	3	0	1	

Model Convergence Status

Convergence criterion (GCONV=1E – 8) satisfied.

Score Test for the Proportional Odds Assumption

Chi – Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
169.8552	66	<.0001

Model Fit Statistics

Criterion	Intercept Only	Intercept and Covariates
AIC	371.571	343.275
SC	380.396	449.174
– 2 Log L	365.571	271.275

R – Square 0.4901 Max – rescaled R – Square 0.5290

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

Test	Chi – Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	94.2961	33	<.0001
Score	70.6512	33	0.0001
Wald	60.2376	33	0.0026

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq
PLACE	2	10.2882	0.0058
MARSTATK2	2	1.8746	0.3917
IDEAL7	5	2.2541	0.8130
AGEGRALL	3	31.3554	<.0001
EDUZ	2	19.7807	<.0001
INCOME	3	6.9022	0.0751
FINANCY	2	14.3821	0.0008
ADVICE	3	8.5760	0.0355
ABORTION	3	14.2033	0.0026
VALUE_1	4	10.5752	0.0318
REAS_3	2	13.3292	0.0013
REAS_9	2	1.0501	0.5915

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq	Exp(Est)
Intercept 1	1	3.2429	1.4376	5.0884	0.0241	25.607
Intercept 2	1	4.7726	1.4739	10.4848	0.0012	118.231
Intercept 3	1	6.6597	1.5295	18.9574	<.0001	780.285
PLACE 2	1	1.5851	0.7409	4.5770	0.0324	4.880
PLACE 3	1	–0.0309	0.7974	0.0015	0.9691	0.970
MARSTATK2 1	1	0.0997	0.7653	0.0170	0.8963	1.105
MARSTATK2 3	1	–0.9087	0.7188	1.5981	0.2062	0.403
IDEAL7 2	1	–0.0344	1.1914	0.0008	0.9770	0.966
IDEAL7 3	1	–0.6074	0.9472	0.4112	0.5214	0.545
IDEAL7 5	1	0.5110	0.6053	0.7127	0.3985	1.667
IDEAL7 6	1	–0.2990	0.5774	0.2682	0.6045	0.742
IDEAL7 7	1	0.3947	0.7881	0.2508	0.6165	1.484
AGEGRALL 1	1	–0.9126	0.8678	1.1059	0.2930	0.401
AGEGRALL 3	1	–3.7146	0.6743	30.3477	<.0001	0.024
AGEGRALL 4	1	–1.8113	0.7606	5.6713	0.0172	0.163
EDUZ 1	1	–2.2315	0.5498	16.4740	<.0001	0.107
EDUZ 3	1	–2.5203	0.6277	16.1221	<.0001	0.080
INCOME 2	1	0.3075	0.4781	0.4138	0.5201	1.360
INCOME 3	1	–0.3077	0.5687	0.2927	0.5885	0.735

INCOME	4	1	−2.2432	0.9813	5.2252	0.0223	0.106
FINANCY	2	1	−3.0793	0.8717	12.4794	0.0004	0.046
FINANCY	3	1	−1.6552	0.5341	9.6043	0.0019	0.191
ADVICE	2	1	−0.2701	0.5594	0.2332	0.6292	0.763
ADVICE	3	1	−1.4099	0.5119	7.5871	0.0059	0.244
ADVICE	4	1	0.2386	0.7892	0.0914	0.7624	1.269
ABORTION	1	1	2.6046	1.5109	2.9719	0.0847	13.526
ABORTION	3	1	0.2408	0.7093	0.1152	0.7343	1.272
ABORTION	4	1	−1.6274	0.8312	3.8330	0.0503	0.196
VALUE_1	0	1	1.4570	1.0059	2.0979	0.1475	4.293
VALUE_1	2	1	1.2755	0.6283	4.1216	0.0423	3.580
VALUE_1	3	1	3.0453	0.9539	10.1917	0.0014	21.016
VALUE_1	4	1	1.3305	1.1130	1.4291	0.2319	3.783
REAS_3	2	1	−0.3225	0.6688	0.2325	0.6297	0.724
REAS_3	3	1	−2.8499	0.8047	12.5440	0.0004	0.058
REAS_9	2	1	−0.2920	0.6884	0.1799	0.6714	0.747
REAS_9	3	1	−0.6669	0.6518	1.0469	0.3062	0.513

Odds Ratio Estimates

Effect		Point Estimate	95% Wald Confidence Limits	
PLACE	2 vs 1	4.880	1.142	20.848
PLACE	3 vs 1	0.970	0.203	4.627
MARSTATK2	1 vs 2	1.105	0.247	4.952
MARSTATK2	3 vs 2	0.403	0.099	1.649
IDEAL7	2 vs 4	0.966	0.094	9.981
IDEAL7	3 vs 4	0.545	0.085	3.488
IDEAL7	5 vs 4	1.667	0.509	5.460
IDEAL7	6 vs 4	0.742	0.239	2.299
IDEAL7	7 vs 4	1.484	0.317	6.954
AGEGRALL	1 vs 2	0.401	0.073	2.199
AGEGRALL	3 vs 2	0.024	0.006	0.091
AGEGRALL	4 vs 2	0.163	0.037	0.726
EDUZ	1 vs 2	0.107	0.037	0.315
EDUZ	3 vs 2	0.080	0.024	0.275
INCOME	2 vs 1	1.360	0.533	3.472
INCOME	3 vs 1	0.735	0.241	2.241
INCOME	4 vs 1	0.106	0.016	0.726
FINANCY	2 vs 1	0.046	0.008	0.254
FINANCY	3 vs 1	0.191	0.067	0.544
ADVICE	2 vs 1	0.763	0.255	2.285
ADVICE	3 vs 1	0.244	0.090	0.666
ADVICE	4 vs 1	1.269	0.270	5.962
ABORTION	1 vs 2	13.526	0.700	261.360
ABORTION	3 vs 2	1.272	0.317	5.109
ABORTION	4 vs 2	0.196	0.039	1.002
VALUE_1	0 vs 1	4.293	0.598	30.831
VALUE_1	2 vs 1	3.580	1.045	12.267
VALUE_1	3 vs 1	21.016	3.240	136.310
VALUE_1	4 vs 1	3.783	0.427	33.514
REAS_3	2 vs 1	0.724	0.195	2.687
REAS_3	3 vs 1	0.058	0.012	0.280
REAS_9	2 vs 1	0.747	0.194	2.878
REAS_9	3 vs 1	0.513	0.143	1.842

The LOGISTIC Procedure

Association of Predicted Probabilities and Observed Responses

Percent Concordant	83.7	Somers' D	0.676
Percent Discordant	16.1	Gamma	0.677
Percent Tied	0.2	Tau − a	0.481
Pairs	6927	c	0.838

Profile Likelihood Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter		Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept	1	3.2429	0.4898	6.0960
Intercept	2	4.7726	1.9432	7.7357
Intercept	3	6.6597	3.7329	9.7518
PLACE	2	1.5851	0.1940	3.0122
PLACE	3	−0.0309	−1.5550	1.4732
MARSTATK2	1	0.0997	−1.4690	1.6770
MARSTATK2	3	−0.9087	−2.3095	0.5029
DEAL7	2	−0.0344	−2.2266	2.2354

IDEAL7	3	−0.6074	−2.5876	1.4385
IDEAL7	5	0.5110	−0.6535	1.7220
IDEAL7	6	−0.2990	−1.5473	0.9462
IDEAL7	7	0.3947	−1.1449	1.9688
AGEGRALL	1	−0.9126	−2.6644	0.7817
AGEGRALL	3	−3.7146	−5.1117	−2.4332
AGEGRALL	4	−1.8113	−3.3980	−0.2930
EDUZ	1	−2.2315	−3.3276	−1.1969
EDUZ	3	−2.5203	−3.7638	−1.3433
INCOME	2	0.3075	−0.6649	1.2933
INCOME	3	−0.3077	−1.4491	0.8450
INCOME	4	−2.2432	−4.2476	−0.2498
FINANCY	2	−3.0793	−4.8635	−1.3731
FINANCY	3	−1.6552	−2.7530	−0.6170
ADVICE	2	−0.2701	−1.3628	0.8458
ADVICE	3	−1.4099	−2.4359	−0.4191
ADVICE	4	0.2386	−1.3300	1.8418
ABORTION	1	2.6046	−0.2962	6.2691
ABORTION	3	0.2408	−1.1364	1.5682
ABORTION	4	−1.6274	−3.2884	−0.0226
VALUE_1	0	1.4570	−0.4572	3.4822
VALUE_1	2	1.2755	0.0290	2.5613
VALUE_1	3	3.0453	1.2584	5.0653
VALUE_1	4	1.3305	−0.8207	3.5325
REAS_3	2	−0.3225	−1.5978	0.9602
REAS_3	3	−2.8499	−4.4420	−1.3605
REAS_9	2	−0.2920	−1.6639	1.0810
REAS_9	3	−0.6669	−1.9266	0.5749

Wald Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter	Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept	1	3.2429	0.4252	6.0605
Intercept	2	4.7726	1.8838	7.6615
Intercept	3	6.6597	3.6618	9.6575
PLACE	3	−0.0309	−1.5937	1.5319
MARSTATK2	1	0.0997	−1.4003	1.5997
MARSTATK2	3	−0.9087	−2.3175	0.5001
IDEAL7	2	−0.0344	−2.3695	2.3007
IDEAL7	3	−0.6074	−2.4640	1.2492
IDEAL7	5	0.5110	−0.6754	1.6974
IDEAL7	6	−0.2990	−1.4306	0.8326
IDEAL7	7	0.3947	−1.1499	1.9392
AGEGRALL	1	−0.9126	−2.6133	0.7882
AGEGRALL	3	−3.7146	−5.0362	−2.3930
AGEGRALL	4	−1.8113	−3.3021	−0.3206
EDUZ	1	−2.2315	−3.3090	−1.1539
EDUZ	3	−2.5203	−3.7505	−1.2900
INCOME	2	0.3075	−0.6295	−1.2446
INCOME	3	−0.3077	−1.4224	−0.8070
INCOME	4	−2.2432	−4.1665	−0.3198
FINANCY	2	−3.0793	−4.7877	−1.3708
FINANCY	3	−1.6552	−2.7019	−0.6084
ADVICE	2	−0.2701	−1.3666	0.8263
ADVICE	3	−1.4099	−2.4132	−0.4067
ADVICE	4	0.2386	−1.3082	1.7854
ABORTION	1	2.6046	−0.3566	5.5659
ABORTION	3	0.2408	−1.1495	1.6310
ABORTION	4	−1.6274	−3.2566	0.00180
VALUE_1	0	1.4570	−0.5146	3.4285
VALUE_1	2	1.2755	0.0441	2.5069
VALUE_1	3	3.0453	1.1757	4.9149
VALUE_1	4	1.3305	−0.8509	3.5120
REAS_3	2	−0.3225	−1.6333	0.9884
REAS_3	3	−2.8499	−4.4270	−1.2728
REAS_9	2	−0.2920	−1.6413	1.0572
REAS_9	3	−0.6669	−1.9445	0.6106

Source: Own survey data

Note: Author's calculations by SAS

BINAFY LOGIT MODEL

```
data j.data_1;
set j.data_1;
if nochild1=1 then nochildb =0;
if nochild1 ge 2 then nochildb=1;
run;

data j.data_1;
set j.data_1;
if nochild2=0 then delete;
if nochild2=2 then delete;
if nochild2=1 then nochildc=2;
if nochild2=3 then nochildc=4;
run;

proc sort data=j.Data_1;
by country;
run;
```

by country:

```
ods html; title ' Binary 0 - 1 Nochild';
proc logistic data=j.Data_1;
where income ne 0;
where eduz ne 0;
by country;
class place (ref='1') marstatk2 (ref='2') agegrall (ref='2') eduz
(ref='2')income (ref='1') financy (ref='1')/param=ref;
model nochildb (ref='1') = place marstatk2 agegrall eduz income financy/
clparm=both expb rsquare ctable;
run; (see Appendix 15);
```

by exact test statement:

```
ods html; title ' Binary 0 - 1 Nochild';
proc logistic data=j.Data_1;
where income ne 0;
where eduz ne 0;
by country;
class marstatk2 (ref='2') eduz (ref='2') agegrall (ref='2') place (ref ='1')
planned7 (ref='4')desired7(ref='4') ideal7 (ref='4') housing_cond
(ref='1')living10 (ref='1') income (ref='1') financy (ref='1') /param=ref;
model nochildc (ref='2') = ideal7 housing_cond
/clparm=both expb rsquare ctable;
exact housing_cond;
run;
```

Appendix 15 – The output of binary logistic regression model, Kazakhstan

```
                          The SAS System                          10:52 Thursday,
                                      Jun
- - - - - - - - - - - - - COUNTRY=1 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
- -
                          The LOGISTIC Procedure
                            Model Information
                    Data Set                          J.DATA_1
                    Response Variable                 nochildb
                    Number of Response Levels         2
                    Model                             binary logit
                    Optimization Technique            Fisher's scoring

                    Number of Observations Read       141
                    Number of Observations Used       141

                          Response Profile

                      Ordered                         Total
                       Value     nochildb     Frequency
```

1	0	62
2	1	79

Probability modeled is nochildb=1.

Class Level Information

Class	Value	Design Variables				
PLACE	1	0	0			
	2	1	0			
	3	0	1			
MARSTATK2	1	1	0			
	2	0	0			
	3	0	1			
AGEGRALL	1	1	0	0		
	2	0	0	0		
	3	0	1	0		
	4	0	0	1		
eduz	2	0	0			
	3	1	0			
	4	0	1			
INCOME	0	1	0	0	0	
	1	0	0	0	0	
	2	0	1	0	0	
	3	0	0	1	0	
	4	0	0	0	1	
FINANCY	1	0	0			
	2	1	0			
	3	0	1			

Model Convergence Status

Quasi – complete separation of data points detected.

WARNING: The maximum likelihood estimate may not exist.

WARNING: The LOGISTIC procedure continues in spite of the above warning. Results shown are based on the last maximum likelihood iteration. Validity of the model fit is questionable.

Model Fit Statistics

Criterion	Intercept Only	Intercept and Covariates
AIC	195.413	157.338
SC	198.362	204.519
– 2 Log L	193.413	125.338

R – Square 0.3829 Max – rescaled R – Square 0.5131

Testing Global Null Hypothesis: BETA=0

Test	Chi – Square	DF	Pr > ChiSq
Likelihood Ratio	68.0745	15	<.0001
Score	53.8788	15	<.0001
Wald	32.2021	15	0.0060

Type 3 Analysis of Effects

Effect	DF	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq
PLACE	2	2.3419	0.3101
MARSTATK2	2	0.0747	0.9633
AGEGRALL	3	19.2611	0.0002
eduz	2	2.8200	0.2441
INCOME	4	15.9080	0.0031
FINANCY	2	0.1240	0.9399

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Parameter	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi – Square	Pr > ChiSq	Exp(Est)
Intercept	1	–1.8126	0.8175	4.9159	0.0266	0.163
PLACE 2	1	–0.1634	0.5351	0.0932	0.7601	0.849
PLACE 3	1	0.7212	0.5877	1.5058	0.2198	2.057

MARSTATK2	1	1	−0.1167	0.6982	0.0279	0.8673	0.890
MARSTATK2	3	1	−0.2122	0.8092	0.0688	0.7931	0.809
AGEGRALL	1	1	1.3438	0.7210	3.4734	0.0624	3.834
AGEGRALL	3	1	4.7497	1.1646	16.6326	<.0001	115.546
AGEGRALL	4	1	1.3298	0.6229	4.5575	0.0328	3.780
eduz	3	1	0.0424	0.5379	0.0062	0.9372	1.043
eduz	4	1	−0.9004	0.5789	2.4190	0.1199	0.406
INCOME	0	1	16.1930	1227.1	0.0002	0.9895	10777463
INCOME	2	1	−0.4015	0.7032	0.3259	0.5681	0.669
INCOME	3	1	1.8974	0.7191	6.9614	0.0083	6.668
INCOME	4	1	1.5902	0.6746	5.5557	0.0184	4.905
FINANCY	2	1	0.2846	0.8375	0.1154	0.7340	1.329
FINANCY	3	1	0.1246	0.5677	0.0482	0.8263	1.133

Odds Ratio Estimates

Effect		Point Estimate	95% Wald Confidence Limits	
PLACE	2 vs 1	0.849	0.298	2.424
PLACE	3 vs 1	2.057	0.650	6.508
MARSTATK2	1 vs 2	0.890	0.226	3.497
MARSTATK2	3 vs 2	0.809	0.166	3.950
AGEGRALL	1 vs 2	3.834	0.933	15.753
AGEGRALL	3 vs 2	115.546	11.788	>999.999
AGEGRALL	4 vs 2	3.780	1.115	12.816
eduz	3 vs 2	1.043	0.364	2.994
eduz	4 vs 2	0.406	0.131	1.264
INCOME	0 vs 1	>999.999	<0.001	>999.999
INCOME	2 vs 1	0.669	0.169	2.656
INCOME	3 vs 1	6.668	1.629	27.299
INCOME	4 vs 1	4.905	1.307	18.402
FINANCY	2 vs 1	1.329	0.257	6.862
FINANCY	3 vs 1	1.133	0.372	3.446

Association of Predicted Probabilities and Observed Responses

Percent Concordant	86.6	Somers' D	0.735
Percent Discordant	13.1	Gamma	0.737
Percent Tied	0.3	Tau − a	0.365
Pairs	4898	c	0.868

Profile Likelihood Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter		Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept		−1.8126	−3.5129	−0.2812
PLACE	2	−0.1634	−1.2316	0.8820
PLACE	3	0.7212	−0.4240	1.8987
MARSTATK2	1	−0.1167	−1.5315	1.2419
MARSTATK2	3	−0.2122	−1.7871	1.4318
AGEGRALL	1	1.3438	−0.0232	2.8354
AGEGRALL	3	4.7497	2.8331	7.7907
AGEGRALL	4	1.3298	0.1332	2.5951
eduz	3	0.0424	−1.0150	1.1089
eduz	4	−0.9004	−2.0739	0.2151
INCOME	0	16.1930	−0.1626	.
INCOME	2	−0.4015	−1.8342	0.9622
INCOME	3	1.8974	0.5467	3.3906
INCOME	4	1.5902	0.3068	2.9760
FINANCY	2	0.2846	−1.3791	1.9403
FINANCY	3	0.1246	−0.9978	1.2504

Wald Confidence Interval for Parameters

Parameter		Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Intercept		−1.8126	−3.4150	−0.2103
PLACE	2	−0.1634	−1.2122	0.8855
PLACE	3	0.7212	−0.4307	1.8731
MARSTATK2	1	−0.1167	−1.4851	1.2518
MARSTATK2	3	−0.2122	−1.7981	1.3737
AGEGRALL	1	1.3438	−0.0694	2.7570
AGEGRALL	3	4.7497	2.4671	7.0323
AGEGRALL	4	1.3298	0.1089	2.5507
eduz	3	0.0424	−1.0118	1.0965

eduz	4	−0.9004	−2.0350	0.2343
INCOME	0	16.1930	−2388.9	2421.3
INCOME	2	−0.4015	−1.7797	0.9768
INCOME	3	1.8974	0.4879	3.3069
INCOME	4	1.5902	0.2679	2.9124
FINANCY	2	0.2846	−1.3569	1.9261
FINANCY	3	0.1246	−0.9881	1.2373

Classification Table

	Correct		Incorrect		Percentages				
Prob Level	Event	Non - Event	Event	Non - Event	Correct	Sensi - tivity	Speci - ficity	False POS	False NEG
0.020	79	0	62	0	56.0	100.0	0.0	44.0	.
0.040	79	3	59	0	58.2	100.0	4.8	42.8	0.0
0.060	79	5	57	0	59.6	100.0	8.1	41.9	0.0
0.080	79	6	56	0	60.3	100.0	9.7	41.5	0.0
0.100	78	10	52	1	62.4	98.7	16.1	40.0	9.1
0.120	76	13	49	3	63.1	96.2	21.0	39.2	18.8
0.140	76	15	47	3	64.5	96.2	24.2	38.2	16.7
0.160	74	19	43	5	66.0	93.7	30.6	36.8	20.8
0.180	74	19	43	5	66.0	93.7	30.6	36.8	20.8
0.200	72	21	41	7	66.0	91.1	33.9	36.3	25.0
0.220	72	24	38	7	68.1	91.1	38.7	34.5	22.6
0.240	71	24	38	8	67.4	89.9	38.7	34.9	25.0
0.260	71	25	37	8	68.1	89.9	40.3	34.3	24.2
0.280	70	25	37	9	67.4	88.6	40.3	34.6	26.5
0.300	69	28	34	10	68.8	87.3	45.2	33.0	26.3
0.320	68	31	31	11	70.2	86.1	50.0	31.3	26.2
0.340	68	33	29	11	71.6	86.1	53.2	29.9	25.0
0.360	63	34	28	16	68.8	79.7	54.8	30.8	32.0
0.380	63	36	26	16	70.2	79.7	58.1	29.2	30.8
0.400	61	36	26	18	68.8	77.2	58.1	29.9	33.3
0.420	61	38	24	18	70.2	77.2	61.3	28.2	32.1
0.440	60	41	21	19	71.6	75.9	66.1	25.9	31.7
0.460	60	42	20	19	72.3	75.9	67.7	25.0	31.1
0.480	57	43	19	22	70.9	72.2	69.4	25.0	33.8
0.500	56	44	18	23	70.9	70.9	71.0	24.3	34.3
0.520	55	45	17	24	70.9	69.6	72.6	23.6	34.8
0.540	53	45	17	26	69.5	67.1	72.6	24.3	36.6
0.560	53	45	17	26	69.5	67.1	72.6	24.3	36.6
0.580	53	46	16	26	70.2	67.1	74.2	23.2	36.1
0.600	53	46	16	26	70.2	67.1	74.2	23.2	36.1
0.620	51	48	14	28	70.2	64.6	77.4	21.5	36.8
0.640	51	48	14	28	70.2	64.6	77.4	21.5	36.8
0.660	50	49	13	29	70.2	63.3	79.0	20.6	37.2
0.680	49	49	13	30	69.5	62.0	79.0	21.0	38.0
0.700	48	49	13	31	68.8	60.8	79.0	21.3	38.8
0.720	46	50	12	33	68.1	58.2	80.6	20.7	39.8
0.740	42	50	12	37	65.2	53.2	80.6	22.2	42.5
0.760	39	51	11	40	63.8	49.4	82.3	22.0	44.0
0.780	39	52	10	40	64.5	49.4	83.9	20.4	43.5
0.800	38	52	10	41	63.8	48.1	83.9	20.8	44.1
0.820	36	55	7	43	64.5	45.6	88.7	16.3	43.9
0.840	35	58	4	44	66.0	44.3	93.5	10.3	43.1
0.860	33	59	3	46	65.2	41.8	95.2	8.3	43.8
0.880	30	60	2	49	63.8	38.0	96.8	6.3	45.0
0.900	28	60	2	51	62.4	35.4	96.8	6.7	45.9
0.920	25	60	2	54	60.3	31.6	96.8	7.4	47.4
0.940	25	60	2	54	60.3	31.6	96.8	7.4	47.4
0.960	22	61	1	57	58.9	27.8	98.4	4.3	48.3
0.980	15	61	1	64	53.9	19.0	98.4	6.3	51.2
1.000	0	62	0	79	44.0	0.0	100.0	.	56.0

Source: Own survey data

Note: Author's calculations by SAS

Appendix 16 – The principles of our modeling

The principle of Model I is: M1KZ/M1MG: *log (mean number of children)= intercept + b1* age group+ b2* educational level + b3*place of residence+b4*marital status of the respondents;* (see Table 70);

```
proc sort data=j.kaz;
by country;
run;

proc means data=j.kaz mean std var;
where agegr ne 1;
by country;
class agegr;
var nochild;
run;
```

Model I by country:

```
proc genmod data=j.kaz;
by country;
where eduz ne 0 and agegr ne 1;
class agegr (ref='3') eduz (ref='2') x2n (ref='2') marstat(ref='7')
/param=ref;
model nochild= agegr marstat agegr eduz x2n marstat /dist= poisson;
run;
```

Submodels separately for Kazakhstan and Mongolia:

SM1KZ/SM1MG: *log (mean number of children) = intercept + b1* age group;*

SM2KZ/SM2MG: *log (mean number of children) = intercept+ b1* education*;

SM3KZ/SM2MG: *log (mean number of children) = intercept + b1* place of residence;*

SM4KZ/SM4MG: *log (mean number of children) = intercept + b1* marital status*; (see Table 68);

One variables model by country:

```
ods html; title agegr;
proc genmod data=j.kaz;
by country;
where agegr ne 1;
class agegr (ref='2')/param=ref;
model nochild= agegr/dist=poisson type1 type3;
                output out=b p=pre;
                   run;
```

MODEL II WITH SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES: *log (mean number of children) = intercept + b1* the age group + b2* income + b3*financial situation + b4* living condition+ b5*acute problem.*

```
proc genmod data=j.kaz;
by country;
where income ne 0 and problem_2 ne 0 and living10 ne 0 ;
class agegr(ref='2')income(ref='4') financy (ref='3') living10
(ref='4')problem_2 (ref='2')/param=ref;
model nochild=agegr income financy living10 problem_2 /dist= poisson;
```

```
run;
```
(see Table 71);

The principle of Model III is: *log (mean number of children) = intercept + b1* the age group + b2* ideal number of children + b3*planned number of children + b4* desired number of the children + b5*country.*

```
proc genmod data=j.kaz;
where ideal7 ne 0 and desired7 ne 0 and planned7 ne 0;
by country;
class agegr (ref='2')ideal7(ref= '4') desired7(ref='4') planned7
(ref='4')/param=ref;
model nochild=agegr ideal7 planned7 desired7 /dist= poisson;
run;
```
(Table 72).

The principle of Model IV is: *log (mean number of children) =intercept + b1* age group + b2* abortion + b3*advice + b4* value of children.*

```
proc genmod data=j.kaz;
by country;
where abortion ne 0 and advice ne 0 and value_2 ne 0;
class agegr (ref='2') advice (ref='1') abortion (ref='3') value_2
(ref='4')/param=ref;
model nochild=agegr abortion advice value_2 /dist= poisson;
run;
```

Appendix 17– Questionnaire for repatriates in Kazakhstan (in Kazakh language)

"ХАЛЫҚАРАЛЫҚ
БАҒДАРЛАМАЛАР ОРТАЛЫҒЫ"
АКЦИОНЕРЛІК ҚОҒАМЫ

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МОҢҒОЛИЯДАН КЕЛГЕН ОРАЛМАНДАР МЕН МОҢҒОЛИЯДАҒЫ ҚАЗАҚ ДИАСПОРАСЫНЫҢ РЕПРОДУКТИВТІ МІНЕЗ – ҚҰЛҚЫ.

_____
Сауалнама нөмірі

_____
Сауалнама беретін адамның номері

_____
Тұрғылықты мекеніңіз (ҚТҚ/кент/ауыл)

Сәлеметсіздер ме!

Сіздерді Қазақстан Республикасындағы оралман әйелдер мен Монғолиядағы қазақ диаспорасының **отбасы, неке, нәрестені өмірге әкелу туралы пікірлерін білу және қазіргі уақытта сізді толғандырып жүрген мәселелерді анықтау** мақсатында өткізілетін әлеуметтану (демогрфиялық) зерттеуге қатысуларыңызды өтінеміз.

Сауалнама жасырын. Зерттеу нәтижесі Сіздердің жауаптарыңыздың ашықтығына байланысты.

Сауалнаманы толтыру үшін өзіңіздің пікіріңізге сәйкес келетін жауап нұсқасын (кей кезде бірнеше) таңдап, айналасын қоршауыңыз қажет. Егер Сізді жауаптардың ешбір нұсқасы қанағаттандырмаса , өз жауап нұсқаңызды немесе жауаптан бас тарту себебіңізді көрсетіңіз. **Қосымша нұсқауды Сізден жауап алып отырған қызметкерден алуыңызға болады.**

Сауалнамаға қатысқаныңыз үшін алғыс айтамыз!

БІРІНШІ БӨЛІМ

S1. Қай жылы дүнеге келгенін көрсетсеңіз ?
1. Сіз _____жылы.
2. Әкеңіз _____жылы.
3. Анаңыз _____жылы.
4. Күйеуіңіз_____жылы.

S2. Моңғолияда қай жерде тұрдыңыз (неше жыл)?
1. Ауылда _____
2. Қалада _____
3. Басқасы _____

S3. Қазақстанда тұрғаныңызға неше жыл болды?
1. 1 жыл.
2. 2–4 жыл.
3. 5–7 жыл.
4. 8–10 жыл.
5. 11–15 жыл.
6. көрсетіңіз _____

S4. Сіз Қазақстанға квота арқылы көшіп келдіңіз бе?
1. Ия.
2. Жоқ.

S5. Моңғолиядағы тұратын өз туысқандарыңыздың тұрмыс жағдайын өздеріңіздің жағдайларыңызбен салыстырғанда?
1. Иә жағдайлары жақсы.
2. Жағдайлары нашар.
3. Салыстырып көрмеппін.
4. Жауап бере алмаймын.

S6. Сіздің жанұя жағдайыңыз?
1. Тұрмысқа шықпағанмын.
2. Үйленгенмін (бірінші рет).
3. Үйленгенмін (екінші (үшінші)рет
4. Үйленгенмін, бірақ күйеуімнен бөлек тұрамын.
5. Ер адаммен некесіз тұрып жатырмын.
6. Ажырасқанбыз.
7. Жесірмін.

S7. Егер үйленген болсаңыз, қай елде некеге тұрғаныңызды белгілеңіз?
1. Моңғолияда.
2. Қазақстанда.

S8. Неше жасыңызда тұрмысқа шықтыңыз?

	Бірінші рет	Екінші рет	Үшінші рет
1. Сіз			
2. Күйеуіңіз			

S9. Үйленгелі неше жыл болды?

	Бірінші некеде	Екінші некеде	Үшінші некеде
1. 1 жылға жетпейді			
2. 1 жылдан 3 жылға дейін			
3. 4 жылдан 6 жылға дейін			
4. 7 жылдан 10 жылға дейін			
5. 11 жылдан 15 жылға дейін			
6. 16 жылдан 20 жылға дейін			
7. 21 жылдан артық			
8. Басқаша болса көрсетіңіз			

S10. Барлығы неше рет жүкті болдыңыз? _____рет

S11. Күйеуге тиген уақытта жүкті болдыңыз ба?
1. Иә жүкті болдым.
2. Жүкті болмағанмын.

S12. Балаларыңыздың туған жылы, жынысы, қайсысы тірі және қайсысы шетінегені туралы ақпарат берсеңіз?

	Туған жылы	жынысы	Моңғолияда	Қазақстанда	тірі	шетінеген
1.Тұңғышыңыз						
2.Екінші балаңыз						
3.Үшінші балаңыз						
4. Төртінші балаңыз						
5. Бесінші балаңыз						
6.Алтыншы балаңыз						
7.Жетінші балаңыз						
8.Сегізінші балаңыз						

S13. Балаларыңызды тәрбиелеп, күтіп бағуда күйеуіңіз тарапынын қандай көмек көрсетіледі?

	Күнделікті	Аптасына бір/ екі мәрте	Үнемі	Ешқашан
1.Үйде отырып балаға қарайды				
2. Балалармен таза ауада серуендейді				
3. Балаларға тамақ пісіреді				
4. Балаларды жуындырады				
5. Балаларға кітап оқып береді				
6. Балалардың сабағын оқытып, көмектеседі				
7. Балаларды мектепке /бала – бақшаға апарады				
8.Басқаша болса көрсетіңіз				

ЕКІНШІ БӨЛІМ

D1. 17 жасыңызға дейін Сіз қандай жерде тұрдыңыз?
1. Үлкен қалада (астана, облыс орталығында).
2. Қалада.
3. Қала негіздегі кентте.
4. Ауылда.
5. Қырда.
6. Басқа (болса көрсетіңіз)_____

D2. 17 жасына дейін күйеуіңіз қандай жерде тұрды?
1. Үлкен қалада (астана, облыс орталығында).
2. Қалада.
3. Қала негіздегі кентте.
4. Ауылда.
5. Қырда.
6. Басқа (болса көрсетіңіз)_____

D3. Үйленгенде күйеуіңізде немесе сізде жекеменшік үй болды ма?

		Иә	Жоқ
1.	Алғашқы некеде (Моңғолияда)		
2.	Екінші/ соңғы некеде (Моңғолияда)		
3.	Алғашқы некеде (Қазақстанда)		
4.	Екінші/ соңғы некеде (Қазақстанда)		

D4. Неше жылдан соң жекеменшікте үйлі болдыңыз?
*Егер жеке меншік үйіңіз жоқ болса нөл деп жазғаныз жөн*_____
1. Үйленгеннен кейін_____(жыл).
2. Үйіміз бар болған.
3. Моңғолиядан көшіп келгеннен _____(жыл**).**

D5. Кәзіргі үйіңіздің жағдайын сипаттап берсеңіз? Ол үй кімнің меншігінде екенін анық көрсетсеңіз?

	Иә	Жоқ	Күйеуімнің	Әке шешемнің	Мемлекеттің	Жалдауға алғанбыз
1.Барлық жағдайы жасалған үй						
2.Жағдайы шектеулі үй						
3.Жекеменшік үй						
4.Ипотекалық кредитке алынған үй						

D6. Кәзіргі үйіңіздің жағдайы сізді толық қанағаттандыра ма?
1**.** Иә, толық қанағаттандырады.
2. Толық қанағаттандырмайды.
3. Жоқ мүлдем қанағаттандырмайды.

D7. Кәзіргі үйіңіз неше бөлмеден тұрады?
1. Бір бөлмелі.
2. Екі бөлмелі.

3. Үш бөлмелі.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетсеніз)_____

D8. Үйлеріңізде (күйеуіңіз бен балаларыңыздан басқа) сіздермен бірге басқа қандай туыстарыңыз тұрады?

1. Күйеуімнің әке шешесі./ата,енем /.
2. Өз әке шеше.
3. Сіздің әке шешеніз.
4. Күйеуімнің аға, апайлары.
6. Менің аға, апайларыңыз.
7. Басқаша болса (көрсетіңіз)_____

D9. Төмендегі аталған заттардың қайсысы Сіздерде (күйеуіңіз бен балаларыңызда) бар?

	Бар	Жоқ
1. компьютер		
2. теледидар		
3. автокөлік		
4. ұялы телефон		
5. жеке кәсіпкерлік (дүкен)		

D10. Өз жанұяңыздың материалдық жағдайын қалай бағалар едіңіз?

1. Негізінен керек заттардың барлығын қиналмай-ақ аламыз.
2. Барлығына шамамыз жетіп жатыр.
3. Негізінен қаражатымыз жетіп жатыр, бірақ үлкен қымбат заттарды қарызға аламыз.
4. Күнделікті заттарға жетіп жатыр, бірақ киім кешек сатып алу қиындау тиеді.
5. Күнделікті заттармен-ақ барлық жалақымыз кетеді.
6. Ақшамыз жетпейді, қарыз алуға тура келеді.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)_____

D11. Өткен он жыл ішінде тіршілік жағдайларыңыз өзгерді ме?

1. Өте жақсарды.
2. Жақсарып келеді.
3. Еш өзгерген жоқ.
4. Нашарлап барады.
5. Жауап бере алмаймын.

D12. Жанұяңызға кіретін кірістің ең қомақтысы кімнің есебінен?

1. Күйеуіңіз.
2. Сіздікі.
3. Күйеуіңіздің әке шешесінікі.
4. Сіздің әке шешеңіздікі.
5. Балаларыңыздікі.
6. Күйеуіміз екеуімізден бірдей.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)_____

D13. Мемлекеттен балаларға берілетін жәрдемақы сізді қанағаттандыра ма?

1. Иә қанағатандырады.
2. Жоқ қанағатсыз.

D14. Мемлекеттен балаларыңызға берілетін жәрдемақыдан басқа жанұяңызға кіретін айындағы кіріс мөлшерін шамамен көрсетсеңіз?

1. 20000 теңгеге дейін.
2. 20001–30000 теңге.
3. 30001–40000 теңге.

4. 40001–50000 теңге.
5. 50001–60000 теңге.
6. 60001–70000 теңге.
7. 70000 жогары
8. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

ҮШІНШІ БӨЛІМ

N1. «Халық санын көбейту» мәселесін Сіздің ойыңызша қалай шешкен дұрыс деп ойлайсыз?
(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)
1. Көші-қон арқылы.
2. Көп балалы болу,бала санын арттыру арқылы.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

N2. «Қазақстанның халық санын көбейту керек» деген саясатына сіздің көзқарасыңыз?
1. Иә келісемін, халық санын көбейту керек.
2. Жоқ халық санын көбейтуге қарсымын.
3. Мен үшін бәрі-бір.
4. Жауап бере алмаймын.
5. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

N3. Мемлекет тарапынан қандай отбасыларға көмек көрсетілу қажет деп ойлайсыз?
1. Балалы барлық отбасына.
2. Тұрмыс жағдайы ауыр, балалы барлық отбасына.
3. Көп балалы тұрмыс жағдайы ауыр отбасына (5 және одан көп балалы).
4. Тек көп балалы отбасыларға.
5. Сіздің жауабыңыз_____.

N4. Жақын арадағы жылдар ішінде басқа жерлерге көшетін жоспарыңыз бар ма?
1. Жоқ, ешқайда көшпеймін.
2. Қазақстан ішінде (қаладан басқа қалаға).
3. Қазақстан ішінде (ауылдан қалаға.)
4. Моңғолияның ішінде.
5. Моңғолиядан Қазақстанға.
6. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

N5. Егер салыстырмалы түрде қай елде жақсы өмір сүру мүмкін?
1. Моңғолияда.
2. Қазақстанда.
3. Басқа _____

ТӨРТІНШІ БӨЛІМ

Фильтр: Сұрақтар тек 2 немесе одан көп баласы бар респонденттерге арналған.

Егер балаңыз жоқ болса немесе 1 балаңыз болса, онда* A1 *сұрағынан бастайсыз.

P1.Сіздің ойыңызша әр жанұяда неше баладан болу қажет?
1. Барлығы ____
2. Ұл бала ____

3. Қыз бала____
4. Жауап бере алмаймын.

Р2. Сіз әйелдердің ұл балалы болғанша бала көтере беретінін дұрыс деп ойлайсыз ба?
1. Иә дұрыс.
2. Жоқ теріс.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р3. Қыз балаларыңыз көп болып, ұл балаңыз болмаса, Сіз ұлды болғанша туа бересіз бе?
1. Иә.
2. Жоқ.
3. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р4. Сіз үшін бала маңызы қандай?
(Сіз үшін маңызды болып саналатын тек 2 жауапты таңдаңыз)
1. Жанұя құру үшін басты жағдай.
2. Өмірімнің мәні.
3. Кәрілік шақтағы тірегім.
4. Қуаныш көзі.
5. Бала үнемі проблема туындатады.
6. Жалғыздықтан құтқарушы.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р5. Үйлену үшін ең дұрысы неше жас деп ойлайсыз?
1. Ер жасы _____
2. Әйел үшін _____

Р5. Тұңғыш пен кенже баланы неше – неше жаста босанған дұрыс деп ойлайсыз?
1. Тұңғыш бала _____ жаста.
2. Кенже бала _____ жаста.

Р6. Кенже балаңыз кімнің шешімі арқылы дүниеге келді ?
1. Сіздің шешіміңіз.
2. Жұбайыңыздың шешімі.
3. Өзара бірігіп шештік.
4. Сіздің анаңыздың шешімі.
5. Сіздің үлкен балаларыңыздың шешімі.
6. Сіздің туысқандарыңыздың шешім.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р7. Сіз жұбайыңыздан ажырасқансыз ба? (*Егер ажыраспаған болсаңыз Р9 сұрағына көшіңіз)*
Заңды түрде / заңсыз түрде (астын сызыңыз).
1. Иә.
2. Жоқ.

Р8. Егер жұбайыңызбендан ажырассаңыз, онда қандай қиындықтармен кездесуде ?

	Иә	Жоқ
1. Материалдық жағынан		
2. Психологиялық тұрғыдан		
3. Балаларды тәрбиелеу тарапынан		
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)		

Р9. Сіздің күйеуінен ажырасып, балаларын өзі тәрбиелеп отырған таңысыңыз бар ма?Сіз әкесіз немесе отағасыз отбасылар қандай қиыншылықтарды көп көреді деп ойлайсыз?

	Иә	Жоқ
1. Материалдық жағынан		
2. Психологиялық тұрғыдан		
3. Балаларды тәрбиелеу тарапынан		
4. Оған қиыншылықтар көп кездесуде		
5. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)		

Р10. Төмендегі айтылған ойлардың қайсысымен келісесіз?
(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)
1. Жұбайыңыз – материалдық және моральдық игілік негізі
2. Жұбайыңыз – тек материалдық игілік негізі
3. Жұбайыңыз белгілі бір себептерге байланысты (салынып ішсе, мінезі жаман болса) қиындықтар туғызса, әйел міндетті түрде ажырасу керек
4. Жұбайыңыз белгілі бір себептерге байланысты (салынып ішсе, мінезі жаман болса) қиындықтар туғызса, әйел тек балаларын асырай алмайтын жағдайда ғана міндетті түрде ажырасу керек

Р11. Кәзіргі уақытта қандай әйелдер көп балалы болады деп ойлайсыз?
(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)
1. Балаларды жақсы көретін әйел.
2. Жұбайын жақсы көретін әйел.
3. Болашағына сенімді әйел.
4. Мемлекеттің болашағын ойлайтын әйел.
5. Балаларының болашағын ойламайтын әйел.
6. Мемлекеттің көмегіне арқа сүйейтін әйел.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р12. Төмендегі тұжырымның қайсысымен келісесіз? *(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)*
1. Көп балалы ана қартайғанда балаларының қызығы мен қамқорлығына толы болады.
2. Көп балалы ананың қартайғанда балаларының қолында тұрар кезінде улкен таңдауы болады.
3. Неше бала дүниеге әкелсеңде, қартайған кезіңде күйеуіңмен бірге жалғыз қаласың.
4. Келіспеймін.
5. Басқа жауап_____

БЕСІНШІ БӨЛІМ

А1. Неке қиған кезіңізде бала санын жоспарладыңыз ба?
1. Иә
2. Жоқ→ **А3 сұрағына өту**

А2. Егер жоспарласаңыз, қанша балалы болуды? _____

А3. Қанша балалы болуды қалайсыз? (бар балаларыңызды қосқанда)
1. Барлығы___
2. Ұл_____
3. Қыз_____

А4. Өз балаларыңызға қанша баласы болсын деп кеңес берер едіңіз?

1. Ұлыңызға_____
2. Қызыңызға_____

А5. Қандай жанұяны көп балалы деп есептейсіз?
1. 2 баласы бар.
2. 3 баласы бар.
3. 4 баласы бар.
4. 5 баладан жоғары.
5. Басқасы(жазыңыз)_____

А6. Қанша жасқа дейін бала көтеруді жоспарладыңыз?

	Тұрмысқа шықпағандар	30 жасқа дейінгі үйленгендер	40жасқа дейінгі үйленгендер
1.30 жасқа дейін			
2.35 жасқа дейін			
3.40 жасқа дейін			
4.45 жасқа дейін			
5. Бұдан артық тумаймын			
6. Басқасы(көрсетіңіз)			

А7. Қазіргіден көбірек балаңыз болғанын қалайсыз ба?

	25 жасқа дейінгі тұрмыстағылар	30 жасқа дейінгі тұрмыстағылар	40 жасқа дейінгі тұрмыстағылар
1.Иа			
2.Жоқ			
3.Білмеймін			
4.Азырақ болғанын қалар едім			

А8. Егер балалы болуды жоспарлаған болсаңыз, баланың жынысы қандай болса дейсіз?

	Иә	Жоқ	Білмеймін
1. Ұл			
2. Қыз			
3. Баланың жынысы маңызды емес			

А9. Жанұядағы бала саны жалпы қанша болғаны жақсы деп ойлайсыз?
1. Барлығы_____
2. Олардың ішінде: Ұл_____
3. Қыз_____
4. Жауап беру қиын.

А10. Егер барлық жағдайыңыз жасалса (жұмыс, үй, ақша), қанша балалы болғанын қалар едіңіз?
1. Барлығы_____
2. Ұл_____
3. Қыз_____
4. Жауап беру қиын.

А11. Егер Сізге жұбайыңыздың ойы белгілі болса, ол қанша бала болғанын қалар еді?
Көрсетіңіз_____

А12. Кәзір балалы болуға не кедергі етеді?

Жастарға қатысты:

	Иә, кедергі етеді	Жоқ, кедергі етпейді
1. Жұмысыңыз		
2. Күйеуімнің жұмыста жоқтығы		
3. Баспана жағдайы		
4. Қаржы тапшылығы		
5. Денсаулықтың нашарлығы		
6. Жұбайымның ішімдікті көп керектенуі		
7. Ертеңгі күнге деген сенімсіздік		
8. Басқасы (жазыңыз)		

Үлкендерге қатысты:

	Иа, кедергі етеді	Жоқ, кедергі етпейді
1.Сіздің жұмысыңыз		
2. Күйеуімнің жұмыста жоқтығы		
3. Баспана жағдайы		
4. Қаржы тапшылығы		
5. Денсаулықтың нашарлығы		
6. Жұбайымның ішімдікті көпкеректенуі		
7. Бала жеткілікті		
8.Жастың ұлғаюы		
9. Басқасы (жазыңыз)		

А13. Егер жүктілігіңіз жоспарсыз болса, баланы алдырасыз ба?
1. Иә.
2. Жоқ.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.

А14. Тұрмысқа шықпаған қыз жүкті болып қалса, оған және оның ата – анасына не кеңес бересіз?
1. Некеге қол жеткізу.
2. Баланы алдырып тастау /аборт жасату/.
3. Некеге отырмаса да, баланы тауып, асырау.
4. Басқасы (жазыңыз)_____

А15. Балалы болудың аралығы канша болғаны дұрыс?
1. 1 – 1,5 жыл.
2. 2 – 2,5 жыл.
3. 3–4 жыл.
4. 5 жыл.
5. 5 жылдан астам.

6. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

А16. Сіз жүктілікке қарсы заттарды қолдандыңыз ба?
(Егер қолданған болсаңыз, қандай түрін колданғаныңызды көрсетіңіз)

	Үйленбеген кезде	Үйленгенде	Ажырасқан соң / Неке бұзылғаннан кейін /
1. Пайдаланған жоқпын			
2. Мүшекап			
3. Гормондық дәрілер			
4. Жатырға салынатын сымдар			
5. Жыныстық қатынастан бас тарту			
6. Жауап бере алмаймын			
7. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)			

А17. Баланы алдырту, сіздің ойыңызша?
1. Бұл кәдімгі медициналық әрекет.
2. Бұл әйел денсаулығы үшін ауыр медициналық операция: дегенмен қажет емес баланы туудан көрі оны алдыртқан дұрыс.
3. Бала туу ана денсаулығына қауіп төндірсе немесе бала дұрыс дамымай жатырса ғана оны алдыртуға болады.
4. Баланы алдыртуға қандай жағдайда да жол берілмейді.

А18. Бұрын бала алдыртып көрдіңіз бе?

	Иә алдыртқанмын. (қанша)	Жоқ	Жауап бере алмаймын
1. Тұрмыс құрмаған кезде			
2. Некеде			
3. Неке бұзылғаннан кейін			

А19. Сіздің ойыңызша, баланы алдырту туралы шешімге кім жауапты?
1. Әйел.
2. Жұбайы /күйеуі /.
3. Күйеуімен әйелі бірге.
4. Ашына.
5. Басқасы_____

А20. Егер балалы бола алмайтын болсаңыз, не істер едіңіз? (жауаптың тек бір нұсқасын таңдаңыз)
1. Балалар үйінен бала алар ма едім.
2. Туыстардан бала асырап алар едім.
3. **«Аспаптық»** балалы болуға тырыстыңыз ба немесе **жасанды ананың** қызметіне жүгіндім.
4. Егер жұбайым кінәлі болса, онымен ажырасар едім.
5. Бала жоқтығына көндігер едім.
6. Жауап беру қиын.
7. Басқасы (жазыңыз)_____

А21. Сіздің ойыңызша, адамдарды балалы болуға не итермелейді? (Әрбір жолдан бір жауапты белгілеңіз)

	Ең маңыздысы	Маңызсыздау	Маңызсыз
1.Рудың жалғасуын қалау	1	2	3
2.Шаруашылықта көмекшіні керек ету	1	2	3
3.Мемлекет тарапынан қолдауды қалау	1	2	3
4.Қартайғанда қамқорлық болғанын калау	1	2	3
5.Жұбайы тарапынан құрмет пен махаббат болғанын қалау	1	2	3
6. Туыстар тарапынан құрмет пен махаббат болғанын қалау	1	2	3
7. Балалар тарапынан махаббат сезімін қалау	1	2	3
8. Өмірдің заңдылығын орындау	1	2	3
9. Жанұяда күйеуді ұстап тұру	1	2	3
10. Баланың әр жыныстан болғанын қалау	1	2	3
11. Ұл тууды қалау	1	2	3
12. Қыз тууды қалау	1	2	3
13.Бала алдыртуды қаламау	1	2	3
14.Барлығы сияқты болуды қалау	1	2	3

АЛТЫНШЫ БӨЛІМ

С1. Егер неке құрған (некеде болған) балаларыңыз болса нешеу екенін көрсетсеңіз?
1. Бар _____
2. Жоқ _____

С2. Барлық балаларыңыз сіздермен бірге тұра ма?
1. Иә→ **С4** *көшесіз*
2. Жоқ.

С3. Сізбен неше балаңыздың бірге тұратынын белгілеп корсетсеңіз?
1. _____ балам.

С4. Неліктен балаларыңыздың бірге тұрмайтын себебі көрсетіңіз?

	Кішкентай балаларыңыз	Үлкен балаларыңыз
1.Өз жанұясымен бөлек тұрады		
2.Басқа қалада/елде оқып жатыр		
3.Күн көріс үшін кетті		
4.Әскерге кеткен		
5.Туыстарымызбен тұрады		
6.Интернатта, жетімдер үйінде тұрады		
7.Сіздің жауабыңыз (көрсетіңіз)		

С5. Сіз жеке отау болғанбалаларыңыз бен оның отбасына қандай көмек көрсетесіз?

	Үнемі	Анда санда	Ешқашан
1.Қиын мәселелерді бірге талқылап, моральдік көмек көрсетемін	1	2	3
2.Немерелерімді бағып көмектесемін	1	2	3
3.Үй шаруашылығында жәрдемдесемін	1	2	3
4.Қайтарылмайтын ақшалай көмек көрсетемін	1	2	3
5.Қарызға ақша беремін			
6. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)	1	2	3

С6. Үлкен балаларыңыз Сізге қандай көмек көрсетеді?

	Үнемі	Анда санда	Ешқашан
1. Қиын мәселелерді бірге талқылап, моральдік көмек көрсетеді	1	2	3
2. Үй шаруашылығында жәрдемдеседі	1	2	3
3.Ауыр, ірі жұмыстарға көмектеседі (көшкенде, ремонт жасағанда т.б)	1	2	3
4.Сауда (азық түлік) жасайды	1	2	3
5.Жуындырып, дәрігерге ертіп апарады	1	2	3
6.Ақшалай көмектеседі	1	2	3
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)	1	2	3

С7. Сізге қаржы жағынан қиындық туындаса, ең алдымен кімнен көмек сұрайсыз?

1. Жұбайымнан.
2. Әке шешемнен.
3. Туған бауырларымнан.
4. Туыстарымнан.
5. Достарымнан.
6. Көршілерден.
7. Өз қиындығымды өзім шешемін.
8. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

С8. Болашағыңызға толық сенімдісіз бе?

1. Иә, толық сенімдімін.
2. Толық сенімді емеспін.
3. Жоқ, сенімді емеспін.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

ЖЕТІНШІ БӨЛІМ

Е1. Сіздің және жұбайыңыздың білім деңгейі қандай?

Білім деңгейі	Сіздің	Жұбайыңыздың
Жоқ		
Бастауыш, 4–сыныпқа дейін		
Толық емес орта, 9–сыныпқа дейін		

Жалпы орта (10–11 сыныптар, КТУ)		
Орта арнайы (колледж,техникум)		
Аяқталмаған жоғарғы білім		
Жоғарғы білім		
Ғылыми деңгей		
Басқа (көрсетіңіз)		

Е2. Мамандығыңызды көрсетіңіз:

	Мамандық (толық атауы)
1. Сіздің	
2. Жұбайыңыздың	

3. Сіздің және жұбайыңыздың қызмет ету аймағы:

	Сіздің	Жұбайыңыздың
1. Мемлекеттік қызмет		
2.Ауыл шаруашылығы		
3.Өнеркәсіп		
4.Құрылыс		
5.Әлеуметтік қызмет (білім беру, денсаулық сақтау және тағы басқа)		
6.Сауда, транспорт және халыққа қызмет көрсету		
7. Кәсіпкерлік		
8. Құқық қорғау органдары (милиция, прокуратура және тағы басқа.)		
9.Үй шаруашылығы		
10.Жұмыссыз		
11.Зейнеткер		
12.Студент		
13.Бақташы		
14.Басқа (көрсетіңіз)		

Е4. Егер қазіргі уақытта жұмыс істесеңіз, Сіздің жүктемеңіз қандай?

1. Жұмыс істемеймін.
2. Бір жұмыста істеймін.
3. Жұмыс істемеймін және қосымша табыс табамын.
4. Келісімді жұмыс.
5. Басқа (жазыңыз)_____

Е5. Сіз жұмысыңызды, мансабыңызды баланы дүниеге әкелу үшін кейінге қалдырасыз ба?

1. Иә қалдырамын.
2. Жоқ.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.

Е6. Өзіңіздің отбасылық және кәсіби міндеттеріңізді салыстырып, төмендегі көрсетілген, сіздің жағдайыңызға сәйкес келетінін нұсқалардың бірін таңдаңыз.
1. Тек отбысымды жоғары қоямын.
2. Отбасыма да, жұмысыма да назар аударамын,бірақ, отбысымды жоғарырақ қоямын.
3. Өз уақытымды отбасыма және жұмысыма бірдей бөлемін.
4. Отбасыма да, жұмысыма да назар аударамын,бірақ, жұмысымды жоғарырақ қоямын.
5. Тек жұмысымды жоғары қоямын.

Е7.Қайсысы Сіздің жеке басыңызға маңызды?

	Маңызды	Маңызы аз	Маңызды емес
1. Отбасы			
2. Балалар			
3. Жұмыс			
4. Ақша			
5. Махаббат			
6. Дос-жарандар			
7. Бос уақыт			

Е8. Сізді қай мәселелер аса қатты алаңдатады?
(Аса маңызды **3** таңдаңыз)
1. Аз кіріс.
2. Жұмыстың болмауы.
3. Жұбайымның жұмысының болмауы.
4. Отбасындағы қарым-қатынас.
5. Жеке үйімнің болмауы.
6. Жаман тұрмыстық жағдай.
7. Медициналық қызметтің төмен болуы.
8. Отбасы мүшесінің денсаулық мәселелері.
9. Қымбат қоғамдық.
10. Қаладағы қылмыстық жағдай.
11. Жергілікті биліктің әлеуметтік қамқорлықты көрсету бойынша жеткіліксіз жұмыс істеуі.
12. Бос уақыттың жетпеуі.
13. Жеке перспективаның болмауы.
14. Ерекше қиындықтар жоқ.

Е9. Сіздің жасыңыздағы әйел үшін не аса мағызды болып табылыды?
(3 аса маңыздысын көрсетіңіз)
1. Материалдық игілік.
2. Жақсы тұрмыстық жағдай.
3. Қызметте жетістіктерге жету.
4. Бос уақытты қызықты өткізу.
5. Достармен сөйлесу.
6. Өзімді өмірдің түрлі салаларында іске асыру.
7. Бір балалы болу.
8. Бірнеше балалы болу.
9. Денсаулықтың жақсы болуы.
10. Күйеуде болу.
11. Некенің тұрақты болуы.
12. Туыстармен тығыз қарым-қатынаста болу.

13. Қоршаған ортадан сыйлауға ие болу.
14. Жақсы білім алу.
15. Сүйікті ісіммен айналасу.

СЕГІЗІНШІ БӨЛІМ

Т1. Сізге төмендегі кестедегі сәйкес келетін нұсқасын белгілесеңіз?

	Өте діндар	Діндар	Дінге сенбейді
1. Сіз			
2. Жұбайыңыз			
3. Балаларыңыз			
4.Жұбайыңыздың әке шешесі			
5. Сіздің әке шешеңіз			
6. Жұбайыңыздың ата-апасы			
7. Сіздің ата-апаңыз			

Т2. Мешітке немесе діни орындарға жиі барасыздар ма?

	Күн сайын	Аптасына бір рет	Айына бір рет	Жылына бірнеше рет	Бармайды	Жауап бере алмаймын
1. Сіз						
2. Жұбайыңыз						
3. Балаларыңыз						
4.Жұбайыңыздың әке шешесі						
5. Сіздің әке шешеңіз						
6. Жұбайыңыздың ата-апасы						
7. Сіздің ата-апаңыз						

Т3. Үйленгенде некеңіз діни жолмен қиылды ма?
1. Иә діни жолмен.
2. Жоқ.

Т4. Үй ішіндегі қызметтер Сіздің жанұяда қалай бөлінген?
1. Жұбайым (күйеуім) ақша табады, мен жұмыс істемей үйге қараймын.
2. Керісінше, Сіз ақша табасыз ал жұбайыңыз жұмыс істемей үйді қарайды.
3. Екеуміз де жұмыс істейміз, бірақ бала тәрбиесі мен үй әйелдің (сіздің)мойнында.
4. Үй шаруасы әйелдікі немесе еркектікі деп бөлінбейді,екеуміз де жұмыс істеп, бірігіп үйге қараймыз.
5. Екеуміз де жұмыстамыз, үйге туыстарымыз қарайды.
6. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

Т5. Жас жанұя кімдермен бірге тұрғаны дұрыс?
1. Ата-енесімен.
2. Әйелдің әке-шешесімен яғни қайынжұртында.
3. Бөлек тұрған жөн.
4. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

Т6. Сіздің пікіріңізше, ата анасы ұлдарына не беруге міндетті ? (тек бір ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)

Сәби немесе жас кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Тілін,әдет-ғұрпын,салт-дәстүрін танып білуге сійкес тәрбиелеу		
2. Білімді болып өсуге тәрбиелеу		
3. Басқаша пікіріңіз		

Ересек кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Өмірлік жарын дұрыс таңдау		
2.Жеке үй алып беруге		
3. Жоғары білімді азамат болуына		
4. Қызметке тұрғызу		
5.Басқаша ойыңыз		

Үйленген кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Қаржылай көмек көрсету		
2. Немересін тәрбиелеуге көмектесу		
3. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)		

Т7. Сіздің пікіріңізше, ата анасы қыздарына не беруге міндетті ? (тек бір ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)

Сәби немесе жас кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Тілін,әдет-ғұрпын,салт-дәстүрін танып білуге сійкес тәрбиелеу		
2. Білімді болып өсуге тәрбиелеу		
3. Басқаша пікіріңіз		

Ересек кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Өмірлік жарын дұрыс таңдау		
2.Жеке үй алып беруге		
3. Жоғары білімді азамат болуына		
4. Қызметке тұрғызу		
5.Басқаша ойыңыз		

Тұрмыс құрған кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Қаржылай көмек көрсету		
2. Немересін тәрбиелеуге көмектесу		
3. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)		

Т8. Сіздің ойыңызша, әке – шешесін бағу қай баланың міндеті?

1. Тек ұл баланың.
2. Тек қыз баланың.
3. Екі баланың да міндеті.
4. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

Т9. Есейген баланың ата-анасының (сіздердің) алдындағы міндеті ?

(тек маңыздысын таңдаңыз)

1. Тұрмыс жағдайы қандай болса да, ата-анасын бағуға міндетті.
2. Тұрмыс жағдайы қандай болса да, тек қарт әке шешесі бағуға міндетті.
3. Балаңыздың тұрмыс жағдайы жақсы болса ғана , сіздерді бағуға міндетті.
4. Балаларыңыз Сіздерді бағуға міндетті емес.

Т10. Өз әке шешеңіздің некесін қалай бағалар едіңіз?
1. Өте бақытты неке.
2. Сәтті неке.
3. Орташа, арасында қиындықтар болып тұрды.
4. Бақытсыз неке.
5. Ажырасып кеткен.
6. Басқа_____

Т11. Сіздің анаңыз қанша баланы дүниеге әкелді?
1. Барлығы _____Оның ішінде: 2.Ұл_____3.Қыз_____

Т12. Некеге дейін жыныстық қатынаста болып көрдіңіз бе?
1. Иә.
2. Жоқ.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.

Т13. Сіз ер адамдардың некеге дейін жыныстық қатынаста болғанына қалай қарайсыз?
1. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны дұрыс.
2. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны теріс.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқаша ойыңыз (көрсетіңіз) _____

Т14. Сіз әйел затыңың некеге дейін жыныстық қатынаста болғанына қалай қарайсыз?
1. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны дұрыс.
2. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны теріс.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқаша ойыңыз (көрсетіңіз) _____

Т15. Тұрмысқа шығуыңыздағы басты себепті көрсетсеңіз?
1. Балалы болу үшін.
2. Қоғамда, міндетті түрде шығу қажет болғандықтан.
3. Туыстарым айтқан соң.
4. Махаббатымыз жарасқаны үшін.
5. Әке шешемнен тәуелсіздік алу үшін.
6. Қаржылай қамтамасаз болу үшін.

..... күні 2009 жыл қолы: _____

Сауалнамаға қатысқаныңыз үшін алғысымызды білдіреміз!

Appendix 18 – Questionnaire for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (in Kazakh language)

"ХАЛЫҚАРАЛЫҚ БАҒДАРЛАМАЛАР ОРТАЛЫҒЫ" АКЦИОНЕРЛІК ҚОҒАМЫ
Қазақстан Республикасы
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Есілдің сол жағалауы, Тәуелсіздік көшесі, 29/1 үй
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CHARLES UNIVERSITY IN PRAGUE, FACULTY OF SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF DEMOGRAPHY AND GEODEMOGRAPHY
ALBERTOV 6, 128 43 PRAGUE 2, CZECH REPUBLIC, PHONE: +420 221 952 191, FAX: +420 224 920 657 E – MAIL: kuanish – 82@mail.ru

МОҢҒОЛИЯДАН КЕЛГЕН ОРАЛМАНДАР МЕН МОҢҒОЛИЯДАҒЫ ҚАЗАҚ ДИАСПОРАСЫНЫҢ РЕПРОДУКТИВТІ МІНЕЗ – ҚҰЛҚЫ.

_____
Сауалнама нөмірі

_____
Сауалнама беретін адамның номері

_____
Тұрғылықты мекеніңіз (ҚТҚ/кент/ауыл)

Сәлеметсіздер ме!

Сіздерді Қазақстан Республикасындағы оралман әйелдер мен Монғолиядағы қазақ диаспорасының **отбасы, неке, нәрестені өмірге әкелу туралы пікірлерін білу және қазіргі уақытта сізді толғандырып жүрген мәселелерді анықтау** мақсатында өткізілетін әлеуметтану (демогрфиялық) зерттеуге қатысуларыңызды өтінеміз.

Сауалнама жасырын. Зерттеу нәтижесі Сіздердің жауаптарыңыздың ашықтығына байланысты.

Сауалнаманы толтыру үшін өзіңіздің пікіріңізге сәйкес келетін жауап нұсқасын (кей кезде бірнеше) таңдап, айналасын қоршауыңыз қажет. Егер Сізді жауаптардың ешбір нұсқасы қанағаттандырмаса , өз жауап нұсқаңызды немесе жауаптан бас тарту себебіңізді көрсетіңіз. **Қосымша нұсқауды Сізден жауап алып отырған қызметкерден алуыңызға болады.**

Сауалнамаға қатысқаныңыз үшін алғыс айтамыз!

БІРІНШІ БӨЛІМ

S1.Қай жылы дүнеге келгенін көрсетсеңіз ?

1. Сіз _____жылы.
2. Әкеңіз _____жылы.
3 Анаңыз _____жылы.
4. Күйеуіңіз_____жылы.

S2. Қазақстанға көшкіңіз келе ме, егер көшкіңіз келсе неше жыл төңірегінде көшуді жоспарлап отырсыз?

1. Иә _____ жыл.
2. Жоқ.
3. Білмеймін.
4. Жауап беру қиын.

S3. Қазақстанға көшу үшін қандай жолды пайдаланасыз ?

1. Квотаны.
2. Өз қаражатымды.

S4. Қазақстанда туысқандарыңыз бар ма?

1. Иә бар.
2. Жоқ

S5. Қазақстанда тұратын туыстарыңыз сізге қай жағынан жақын болып келеді?

1. Аталас туыстарымыз.
2. Күйеуіммен бірге туысатындар /аға-жеңге,бауырлары-келіндері,әпеке-жезде,күйеу-қарындастары/.
3. Күйеуімнің әке-шешесі яғни ата , енем.
4. Менімен бірге туысатындар /аға-жеңге,бауырлар-келіндер,әпеке-жезде,күйеу-сіңілдерім/.
5. Өзімнің әке-шешем.
6. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

S6. Жоғарғы оқу орындарында білім алып жатқан балаларыңыз бар ма ?

1. Иә, бар.
2. Әзірге жоқ.

S7. Балаларыңыз қай елдерде жоғарғы білім алып жатыр?

1. Моңғолияда.
2. Қазақстанда.
3. Басқа елдерде (көрсетіңіз) _____
4. Әзірге жоғарғы оқу орнына түскені жоқ..

S8. Жоғарғы оқу орнын бітірген балаларыңыз Моңғолияда жұмыс істеп жатыр ма?

1. Иә Моңғолияда жұмыс істейді.
2. Иә Қазақстанда жұмыс істейді..
3. Жұмыста жоқ..
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

S9. Егерде балаларыңыз жоғарғы оқу орнына түсіп үлгермеген болса, қай елден білім алғысы келеді?

1. Моңғолияда.
2. Қазақстанда.

3. Басқа елдерде (көрсетіңіз) _____

S10. Балаларыңыз жоғарғы оқу орнын бітіргеннен кейін, білім алған (алып жатқан) елінде қалып жұмыс істегісі келе ме ?

1. Иә.
2. Жоқ.
3. Білмеймін.
4. Жауап бере алмаймын.

S11. Қазақстандағы туысқандарыңыз Моңғолияға қаншалықты жиі келіп кетіп тұрады?

1. Алты айда 1 рет.
2. Жылына 1 рет.
3. Екі жылда 1 рет.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

S12. Қазақстандағы тұратын өз туысқандарыңыздың тұрмыс жағдайын өздеріңіздің жағдайларыңызбен салыстырғанда?

1. Иә жағдайлары жақсы.
2. Жағдайлары нашар.
3. Салыстырып көрмеппін.
4. Жауап бере алмаймын.

S13. Туысқандарыңыз Қазақстанға көшкеніне өкіне ме?

1. Иә өкінеді.
2. Жоқ өкінбейді.
3. Білмеймін.
4. Жауап бере алмаймын

S14. Сіздің жанұя жағдайыңыз?:

1. Тұрмысқа шықпағанмын.
2. Үйленгенмін (бірінші рет).
3. Үйленгенмін (екінші (үшінші) рет.
4. Үйленгенмін, бірақ күйеуімнен бөлек тұрамын.
5. Ер адаммен некесіз тұрып жатырмын.
6. Ажырасқанбыз.
7. Жесірмін.

S15. Егер үйленген болсаңыз, қай елде некеге тұрғаныңызды белгілеңіз?

1. Моңғолияда.
2. Қазақстанда.

S16. Неше жасыңызда тұрмысқа шықтыңыз ?

	Бірінші рет	Екінші рет	Үшінші рет
1. Сіз			
2. Күйеуіңіз			

S17. Үйленгелі неше жыл болды ?

	Бірінші некеде	Екінші некеде	Үшінші некеде
1. 1 жылға жетпейді			
2. 1 жылдан 3 жылға дейін			

3. 4 жылдан 6 жылға дейін			
4. 7 жылдан 10 жылға дейін			
5. 11 жылдан 15 жылға дейін			
6. 16 жылдан 20 жылға дейін			
7. 21 жылдан артық			
8. Басқаша болса көрсетіңіз			

S18. Барлығы неше рет жүкті болдыңыз? _____рет

S19. Күйеуге тиген уақытта жүкті болдыңыз ба?

1. Иә, жүкті болдым.
2. Жүкті болмағанмын.

S20. Балаларыңыздың туған жылы, жынысы, қайсысы тірі және қайсысы шетінегені туралы ақпарат берсеңіз?

	Туған жылы	Жынысы	Моңғолияда	Қазақстанда	Тірі	Шетінеген
1.Тұңғышыңыз						
2.Екінші балаңыз						
3.Үшінші балаңыз						
4. Төртінші балаңыз						
5. Бесінші балаңыз						
6.Алтыншы балаңыз						
7.Жетінші балаңыз						
8.Сегізінші балаңыз						

S21. Балаларыңызды тәрбиелеп, күтіп бағуда күйеуіңіз тарапынын қандай көмек көрсетіледі?

	Күнделікті	Аптасына бір/ екі мәрте	Үнемі	Ешқашан
1.Үйде отырып балаға қарайды				
2. Балалармен таза ауада серуендейді				
3. Балаларға тамақ пісіреді				
4. Балаларды жуындырады				
5. Балаларға кітап оқып береді				
6. Балалардың сабағын оқытып, көмектеседі				
7. Балаларды мектепке /бала-бақшаға апарады				
8.Басқаша болса көрсетіңіз				

ЕКІНШІ БӨЛІМ

D1. 17 жасыңызға дейін Сіз қандай жерде тұрдыңыз?

1. Үлкен қалада (астана, облыс орталығында).
2. Қалада.
3. Қала негіздегі кентте.
4. Ауылда.
5. Қырда.
6. Басқа (болса көрсетіңіз)_____

D2. 17 жасына дейін күйеуіңіз қандай жерде тұрды?

1.Үлкен қалада (астана, облыс орталығында).
2.Қалада.
3.Қала негіздегі кентте.
4.Ауылда.
5. Қырда.
6.Басқа (болса көрсетіңіз)_____

D3. Үйленгенде күйеуіңізде немесе сізде жекеменшік үй болды ма?

		Иә	Жоқ
1.	Алғашқы некеде (Моңғолияда)		
2.	Екінші/ соңғы некеде (Моңғолияда)		
3.	Алғашқы некеде (Қазақстанда)		
4.	Екінші/ соңғы некеде (Қазақстанда)		

D4. Неше жылдан соң жекеменшікте үйлі болдыңыз?

*Егер жеке меншік үйіңіз жоқ болса нөл деп жазғаныз жөн*_____

1.Үйленгеннен кейін_____(жыл).
2.Үйіміз бар болған.

D5. Кәзіргі үйіңіздің жағдайын сипаттап берсеңіз? Ол үй кімнің меншігінде екенін анық көрсетсеңіз?

	Иә	Жоқ	Күйеуімнің	Әке шешемнің	Мемлекеттің	Жалдауға алғанбыз
1.Барлық жағдайы жасалған үй						
2.Жағдайы шектеулі үй						
3.Жекеменшік үй						
4.Ипотекалық кредитке алынған үй						

D6. Кәзіргі үйіңіздің жағдайы сізді толық қанағаттандыра ма?

1**.** Иә, толық қанағаттандырады.
2. Толық қанағаттандырмайды.
3. Жоқ мүлдем қанағаттандырмайды.

D7. Кәзіргі үйіңіз неше бөлмеден тұрады?

1. Бір бөлмелі.
2. Екі бөлмелі.

3. Үш бөлмелі.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетсеніз)_____

D8. Үйлеріңізде (күйеуіңіз бен балаларыңыздан басқа) сіздермен бірге басқа қандай туыстарыңыз тұрады?

1. Күйеуімнің әке шешесі./ата,енем /.
2. Өз әке шеше.
3. Сіздің әке шешеніз.
4. Күйеуімнің аға , апайлары.
6.Менің аға , апайларыңыз.
7. Басқаша болса (көрсетіңіз)_____

D9. Төмендегі аталған заттардың қайсысы Сіздерде (күйеуіңіз бен балаларыңызда) бар?

	Бар	Жоқ
1. компьютер		
2. теледидар		
3. автокөлік		
4. ұялы телефон		
5. жеке кәсіпкерлік (дүкен)		

D10. Өз жанұяңыздың материалдық жағдайын қалай бағалар едіңіз?
1.Негізінен керек заттардың барлығын қиналмай-ақ аламыз.
2.Барлығына шамамыз жетіп жатыр.
3.Негізінен қаражатымыз жетіп жатыр, бірақ үлкен қымбат заттарды қарызға аламыз.
4.Күнделікті заттарға жетіп жатыр, бірақ киім кешек сатып алу қиындау тиеді.
5.Күнделікті заттармен-ақ барлық жалақымыз кетеді.
6.Ақшамыз жетпейді, қарыз алуға тура келед.і
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)_____

D11. Өткен он жыл ішінде тіршілік жағдайларыңыз өзгерді ме?
1. Өте жақсарды.
2. Жақсарып келеді.
3. Еш өзгерген жоқ.
4. Нашарлап барады.
5. Жауап бере алмаймын.

D12. Жанұяңызға кіретін кірістің ең қомақтысы кімнің есебінен?
1. Күйеуіңіз.
2. Сіздікі.
3. Күйеуіңіздің әке шешесінікі.
4. Сіздің әке шешеңіздікі.
5. Балаларыңыздікі.
6. Күйеуіміз екеуімізден бірдей.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)_____

D13. Мемлекеттен балаларға берілетін жәрдемақы сізді қанағаттандыра ма?
1. Иә қанағатандырады.
2. Жоқ қанағатсыз.

D14. Мемлекеттен балаларыңызға берілетін жәрдемақыдан басқа жанұяңызға кіретін айындағы кіріс мөлшерін шамамен көрсетсеңіз?
1. 10000–40000 төгрөг.

2. 50000–70000 төгрөг.
3. 80000–100000 төгрөг.
4. 110000–200000 төгрөг.
5. 200000–жоғары.
6. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

ҮШІНШІ БӨЛІМ

N1. «Халық санын көбейту» мәселесін Сіздің ойыңызша қалай шешкен дұрыс деп ойлайсыз?

(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)

1. Көші – қон арқылы.
2. Көп балалы болу,бала санын арттыру арқылы.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

N2. «Қазақстанның халық санын көбейту керек» деген саясатына сіздің көзқарасыңыз?

1. Иә келісемін, халық санын көбейту керек.
2. Жоқ халық санын көбейтуге қарсымын.
3. Мен үшін бәрі-бір.
4. Жауап бере алмаймын.
5. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

N3. Мемлекет тарапынан қандай отбасыларға көмек көрсетілу қажет деп ойлайсыз?

1. Балалы барлық отбасына.
2. Тұрмыс жағдайы ауыр, балалы барлық отбасына.
3. Көп балалы тұрмыс жағдайы ауыр отбасына (5 және одан көп балалы).
4. Тек көп балалы отбасыларға.
5. Сіздің жауабыңыз_____

N4. Жақын арадағы жылдар ішінде басқа жерлерге көшетін жоспарыңыз бар ма?

1. Жоқ , ешқайда көшпеймін.
2. Қазақстан ішінде (қаладан басқа қалаға).
3. Қазақстан ішінде (ауылдан қалаға).
4. Моңғолияның ішінде.
5. Моңғолиядан Қазақстанға.
6. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

N5. Егер салыстырмалы түрде қай елде жақсы өмір сүру мүмкін?

1. Моңғолияда.
2. Қазақстанда.
3. Басқа _____

ТӨРТІНШІ БӨЛІМ

Фильтр: Сұрақтар – тек 2 немесе одан көп баласы бар респонденттерге арналған..

Егер балаңыз жоқ болса немесе 1 балаңыз болса, онда* A1 *сұрағынан бастайсыз.

P1.Сіздің ойыңызша әр жанұяда неше баладан болу қажет?

1. Барлығы ____
2. Ұл бала ____
3. Қыз бала____

4. Жауап бере алмаймын.

Р2. Сіз әйелдердің ұл балалы болғанша бала көтере беретінін дұрыс деп ойлайсыз ба?

1. Иә дұрыс.
2. Жоқ теріс.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р3. Қыз балаларыңыз көп болып, ұл балаңыз болмаса, Сіз ұлды болғанша туа бересіз бе?

1.Иә.
2.Жоқ.
3.Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р4. Сіз үшін бала маңызы қандай?

(Сіз үшін маңызды болып саналатын тек 2 жауапты таңдаңыз)

1. Жанұя құру үшін басты жағдай.
2. Өмірімнің мәні.
3. Кәрілік шақтағы тірегім.
4. Қуаныш көзі.
5. Бала үнемі проблема туындатады.
6. Жалғыздықтан құтқарушы.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р5. Үйлену үшін ең дұрысы неше жас деп ойлайсыз ?

1. Ер жасы _____
2. Әйел үшін _____

Р5. Тұңғыш мен кенже баланы неше – неше жаста босанған дұрыс деп ойлайсыз?

1. Тұңғыш бала _____ жаста.
2. Кенже бала _____ жаста.

Р6. Кенже балаңыз кімнің шешімі арқылы дүниеге келді ?

1. Сіздің шешіміңіз.
2. Жұбайыңыздың шешімі.
3. Өзара бірігіп шештік.
4. Сіздің анаңыздың шешімі.
5. Сіздің үлкен балаларыңыздың шешімі.
6. Сіздің туысқандарыңыздың шешім.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р7. Сіз жұбайыңыздан ажырасқансыз ба? (*Егер ажыраспаған болсаңыз Р9 сұрағына көшіңіз)*

Заңды түрде / заңсыз түрде (астын сызыңыз).

1. Иә.
2. Жоқ.

Р8. Егер жұбайыңызбендан ажырассаңыз, онда қандай қиындықтармен кездесуде ?

	Иә	Жоқ
1. Материалдық жағынан		
2. Психологиялық тұрғыдан		
3. Балаларды тәрбиелеу тарапынан		
4. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)		

Р9. Сіздің күйеуінен ажырасып, балаларын өзі тәрбиелеп отырған таңысыңыз бар ма?

Сіз әкесіз немесе отағасыз отбасылар қандай қиыншылықтарды көп көреді деп ойлайсыз?

	Иә	Жоқ
1. Материалдық жағынан		
2. Психологиялық тұрғыдан		
3. Балаларды тәрбиелеу тарапынан		
4. Оған қиыншылықтар көп кездесуде		
5. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)		

Р10. Төмендегі айтылған ойлардың қайсысымен келісесіз?

(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)

1. Жұбайыңыз – материалдық және моральдық игілік негізі.
2. Жұбайыңыз – тек материалдық игілік негізі.
3. Жұбайыңыз белгілі бір себептерге байланысты (салынып ішсе, мінезі жаман болса) қиындықтар туғызса, әйел міндетті түрде ажырасу керек.
4. Жұбайыңыз белгілі бір себептерге байланысты (салынып ішсе, мінезі жаман болса) қиындықтар туғызса, әйел тек балаларын асырай алмайтын жағдайда ғана міндетті түрде ажырасу керек.

Р11. Кәзіргі уақытта қандай әйелдер көп балалы болады деп ойлайсыз? *(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)*

1. Балаларды жақсы көретін әйел.
2. Жұбайын жақсы көретін әйел.
3. Болашағына сенімді әйел.
4. Мемлекеттің болашағын ойлайтын әйел.
5. Балаларының болашағын ойламайтын әйел.
6. Мемлекеттің көмегіне арқа сүйейтін әйел.
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

Р12. Төмендегі тұжырымның қайсысымен келісесіз? *(тек 1 ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)*

1.Көп балалы ана қартайғанда балаларының қызығы мен қамқорлығына толы болады.
2.Көп балалы ананың қартайғанда балаларының қолында тұрар кезінде улкен таңдауы болады.
3.Неше бала дүниеге әкелсеңде, қартайған кезіңде күйеуіңмен бірге жалғыз қаласың.

4.Келіспеймін.

5. Басқа жауап_____

БЕСІНШІ БӨЛІМ

А1. Неке қиған кезіңізде бала санын жоспарладыңыз ба?

1. Иә.
2. Жоқ→ **А3 сұрағына өту**

А2. Егер жоспарласаңыз, қанша балалы болуды? _____

А3. Қанша балалы болуды қалайсыз? (бар балаларыңызды қосқанда)

1. Барлығы___
2. Ұл _____
3. Қыз _____

А4. Өз балаларыңызға қанша баласы болсын деп кеңес берер едіңіз?

1. Ұлыңызға_____
2. Қызыңызға_____

А5. Қандай жанұяны көп балалы деп есептейсіз?

1. 2 баласы бар.
2. 3 баласы бар.
3. 4 баласы бар.
4. 5 баласы бар.
5. Басқасы(жазыңыз)_____.

А6. Қанша жасқа дейін бала көтеруді жоспарладыңыз?

	Тұрмысқа шықпағандар	30 жасқа дейінгі үйленгендер	40жасқа дейінгі үйленгендер
1.30 жасқа дейін			
2.35 жасқа дейін			
3.40 жасқа дейін			
4.45 жасқа дейін			
5. Бұдан артық тумаймын			
6. Басқасы(көрсетіңіз)			

А7. Қазіргіден көбірек балаңыз болғанын қалайсыз ба?

	25 жасқа дейінгі тұрмыстағылар	30 жасқа дейінгі тұрмыстағылар	40 жасқа дейінгі тұрмыстағылар
1.Иа			
2.Жоқ			
3.Білмеймін			
4.Азырақ болғанын қалар едім			

А8. Егер балалы болуды жоспарлаған болсаңыз, баланың жынысы қандай болса дейсіз?

	Иә	Жоқ	Білмеймін
1. Ұл			
2. Қыз			
3. Баланың жынысы маңызды емес			

А9. Жанұядағы бала саны жалпы қанша болғаны жақсы деп ойлайсыз?

1.Барлығы_____
2.Олардың ішінде: Ұл_____
3.Қыз_____
4.Жауап беру қиын

А10. Егер барлық жағдайыңыз жасалса (жұмыс, үй, ақша), қанша балалы болғанын қалар едіңіз?

1. Барлығы_____
2. Ұл_____
3. Қыз_____
4. Жауап беру қиын

А11. Егер Сізге жұбайыңыздың ойы белгілі болса, ол қанша бала болғанын қалар еді?

Көрсетіңіз_____

А12. Кәзір балалы болуға не кедергі етеді?

Жастарға қатысты:

	Иә, кедергі етеді	Жоқ, кедергі етпейді
1. Жұмысыңыз		
2. Күйеуімнің жұмыста жоқтығы		
3. Баспана жағдайы		
4. Қаржы тапшылығы		
5. Денсаулықтың нашарлығы		
6. Жұбайымның ішімдікті көп керектенуі		
7. Ертеңгі күнге деген сенімсіздік		
8. Басқасы (жазыңыз)		

Үлкендерге қатысты:

	Иа, кедергі етеді	Жоқ, кедергі етпейді
1.Сіздің жұмысыңыз		
2. Күйеуімнің жұмыста жоқтығы		
3. Баспана жағдайы		
4. Қаржы тапшылығы		
5. Денсаулықтың нашарлығы		
6. Жұбайымның ішімдікті көпкеректенуі		
7. Бала жеткілікті		
8.Жастың ұлғаюы		
9. Басқасы (жазыңыз)		

А13. Егер жүктілігіңіз жоспарсыз болса, баланы алдырасыз ба?

1. Иә.
2. Жоқ.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.

А14. Тұрмысқа шықпаған қыз жүкті болып қалса, оған және оның ата-анасына не кеңес бересіз?

1. Некеге қол жеткізу.
2. Баланы алдырып тастау /аборт жасату/.
3. Некеге отырмаса да, баланы тауып, асырау.
4. Басқасы (жазыңыз)_____

А15. Балалы болудың аралығы канша болғаны дұрыс?

1. 1–1,5 жыл.
2. 2–2,5 жыл.
3. 3–4 жыл.
4. 5 жыл.
5. 5 жылдан астам.
6.Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

А16. Сіз жүктілікке қарсы заттарды қолдандыңыз ба?

(Егер қолданған болсаңыз, қандай түрін колданғаныңызды көрсетіңіз)

	Үйленбеген кезде	Үйленгенде	Ажырасқан соң / Неке бұзылғаннан кейін /
1. Пайдаланған жоқпын			
2. Мүшекап			
3. Гормондық дәрілер			
4. Жатырға салынатын сымдар			
5. Жыныстық қатынастан бас тарту			
6. Жауап бере алмаймын			
7. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)			

А17. Баланы алдырту, сіздің ойыңызша?

1. Бұл кәдімгі медициналық әрекет.

2. Бұл әйел денсаулығы үшін ауыр медициналық операция: дегенмен қажет емес баланы туудан көрі оны алдыртқан дұрыс.

3. Бала туу ана денсаулығына қауіп төндірсе немесе бала дұрыс дамымай жатырса ғана оны алдыртуға болады.

4. Баланы алдыртуға қандай жағдайда да жол берілмейді.

А18. Бұрын бала алдыртып көрдіңіз бе?

	Иә алдыртқанмын (қанша)	Жоқ	Жауап бере алмаймын
1. Тұрмыс құрмаған кезде			
2. Некеде			
3. Неке бұзылғаннан кейін			

А19. Сіздің ойыңызша, баланы алдырту туралы шешімге кім жауапты?

1. Әйел.
2. Жұбайы /күйеуі /.
3. Күйеуімен әйелі бірге.
4. Ашына.
5. Басқасы_____.

А20. Егер балалы бола алмайтын болсаңыз, не істер едіңіз? (жауаптың тек бір нұсқасын таңдаңыз)

1. Балалар үйінен бала алар ма едім.
2. Туыстардан бала асырап алар едім.
3. **«Аспаптық»** балалы болуға тырыстыңыз ба немесе **жасанды ананың** қызметіне жүгіндім.
4. Егер жұбайым кінәлі болса, онымен ажырасар едім.
5. Бала жоқтығына көндігер едім.
6. Жауап беру қиын.
7. Басқасы (жазыңыз)_____

А21. Сіздің ойыңызша, адамдарды балалы болуға не итермелейді? (әрбір жолдан бір жауапты белгілеңіз)

	Ең маңыздысы	Маңызсыздау	Маңызсыз
1.Рудың жалғасуын қалау	1	2	3
2.Шаруашылықта көмекшіні керек ету	1	2	3
3.Мемлекет тарапынан қолдауды қалау	1	2	3
4.Қартайғанда қамқорлық болғанын калау	1	2	3
5.Жұбайы тарапынан құрмет пен махаббат болғанын қалау	1	2	3
6. Туыстар тарапынан құрмет пен махаббат болғанын қалау	1	2	3
7. Балалар тарапынан махаббат сезімін қалау	1	2	3
8. Өмірдің заңдылығын орындау	1	2	3
9. Жанұяда күйеуді ұстап тұру	1	2	3
10. Баланың әр жыныстан болғанын қалау	1	2	3
11. Ұл тууды қалау	1	2	3
12. Қыз тууды қалау	1	2	3
13.Бала алдыртуды қаламау	1	2	3
14.Барлығы сияқты болуды қалау	1	2	3

АЛТЫНШЫ БӨЛІМ

С1. Егер неке құрған (некеде болған) балаларыңыз болса нешеу екенін көрсетсеңіз?

1. Бар _____
2. Жоқ _____

С2. Барлық балаларыңыз сіздермен бірге тұра ма?

1. Иә→ **С4** *көшесіз*
2. Жоқ

С3. Сізбен неше балаңыздың бірге тұратынын белгілеп корсетсеңіз?

1._____ балам

С4. Неліктен балаларыңыз бірге тұрмайтын себебі ?

	Кішкентай балаларыңыз	Үлкен балаларыңыз
1.Өз жанұясымен бөлек тұрады		
2.Басқа қалада/елде оқып жатыр		
3.Күн көріс үшін кетті		
4.Әскерге кеткен		
5.Туыстарымызбен тұрады		
6.Интернатта, жетімдер үйінде тұрады		
7.Сіздің жауабыңыз (көрсетіңіз)		

С5. Сіз жеке отау болғанбалаларыңыз бен оның отбасына қандай көмек көрсетесіз?

	Үнемі	Анда санда	Ешқашан
1.Қиын мәселелерді бірге талқылап, моральдік көмек көрсетемін	1	2	3
2.Немерелерімді бағып көмектесемін	1	2	3
3.Үй шаруашылығында жәрдемдесемін	1	2	3
4.Қайтарылмайтын ақшалай көмек көрсетемін	1	2	3
5.Қарызға ақша беремін			
6. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)	1	2	3

С6. Үлкен балаларыңыз Сізге қандай көмек көрсетеді?

	Үнемі	Анда санда	Ешқашан
1. Қиын мәселелерді бірге талқылап, моральдік көмек көрсетеді	1	2	3
2. Үй шаруашылығында жәрдемдеседі	1	2	3
3.Ауыр, ірі жұмыстарға көмектеседі (көшкенде, ремонт жасағанда т.б)	1	2	3
4.Сауда (азық түлік) жасайды	1	2	3
5.Жуындырып, дәрігерге ертіп апарады	1	2	3
6.Ақшалай көмектеседі	1	2	3
7. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз)	1	2	3

С7. Сізге қаржы жағынан қиындық туындаса, ең алдымен кімнен көмек сұрайсыз?

1. Жұбайымнан.
2. Әке шешемнен.
3. Туған бауырларымнан.
4. Туыстарымнан.
5. Достарымнан.
6. Көршілерден.
7. Өз қиындығымды өзім шешемін.

8. Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

С8. Болашағыңызға толық сенімдісіз бе?

4.Иә, толық сенімдімін.
5.Толық сенімді емеспін.
6.Жоқ, сенімді емеспін.
4.Басқа жауап (көрсетіңіз) _____

ЖЕТІНШІ БӨЛІМ

Е1. Сіздің және жұбайыңыздың білім деңгейі қандай?

Білім деңгейі	Сіздің	Жұбайыңыздың
Жоқ		
Бастауыш, 4–сыныпқа дейін		
Толық емес орта, 9–сыныпқа дейін		
Жалпы орта (10–11 сыныптар, КТУ)		
Орта арнайы (колледж,техникум)		
Аяқталмаған жоғарғы білім		
Жоғарғы білім		
Ғылыми деңгей		
Басқа (көрсетіңіз)		

Е2. Мамандығыңызды көрсетіңіз:

	Мамандық (толық атауы)
1. Сіздің	
2. Жұбайыңыздың	

Е3. Сіздің және жұбайыңыздың қызмет ету аймағы:

	Сіздің	Жұбайыңыздың
1. Мемлекеттік қызмет		
2.Ауыл шаруашылығы		
3.Өнеркәсіп		
4.Құрылыс		
5.Әлеуметтік қызмет (білім беру, денсаулық сақтау және тағы басқа)		
6.Сауда, транспорт және халыққа қызмет көрсету		
7. Кәсіпкерлік		
8. Құқық қорғау органдары (милиция, прокуратура және тағы басқа.)		
9.Үй шаруашылығы		

10.Жұмыссыз		
11.Зейнеткер		
12.Студент		
13.Бақташы		
14.Басқа (көрсетіңіз)		

E4. Егер қазіргі уақытта жұмыс істесеңіз, Сіздің жүктемеңіз қандай?
1. Жұмыс істемеймін.
2. Бір жұмыста істеймін.
3. Жұмыс істемеймін және қосымша табыс табамын.
4.Келісімді жұмыс.
5. Басқа (жазыңыз)_____

E5. Сіз жұмысыңызды, мансабыңызды баланы дүниеге әкелу үшін кейінге қалтырасыз ба?
1. Иә қалтырамын.
2. Жоқ.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.

E6. Өзіңіздің отбасылық және кәсіби міндеттеріңізді салыстырып, төмендегі көрсетілген, сіздің жағдайыңызға сәйкес келетінін нұсқалардың бірін таңдаңыз.
1.Тек отбысымды жоғары қоямын.
2.Отбасыма да, жұмысыма да назар аударамын,бірақ, отбысымды жоғарырақ қоямын.
3.Өз уақытымды отбасыма және жұмысыма бірдей бөлемін.
4. Отбасыма да, жұмысыма да назар аударамын,бірақ, жұмысымды жоғарырақ қоямын.
5. Тек жұмысымды жоғары қоямын.

E7.Қайсысы Сіздің жеке басыңызға маңызды?

	Маңызды	Маңызы аз	Маңызды емес
1. Отбасы			
2. Балалар			
3. Жұмыс			
4. Ақша			
5. Махаббат			
6. Дос-жарандар			
7. Бос уақыт			

E8. Сізді қай мәселелер аса қатты алаңдатады? (Аса маңызды **3** таңдаңыз)
1. Аз кіріс.
2. Жұмыстың болмауы.
3. Жұбайымның жұмысының болмауы.
4. Отбасындағы қарым-қатынас.
5. Жеке үйімнің болмауы.
6. Жаман тұрмыстық жағдай.
7. Медициналық қызметтің төмен болуы.
8. Отбасы мүшесінің денсаулық мәселелері.
9. Қымбат қоғамдық.
10. Қаладағы қылмыстық жағдай.
11. Жергілікті биліктің әлеуметтік қамқорлықты көрсету бойынша жеткіліксіз жұмыс істеуі.

12. Бос уақыттың жетпеуі.
13. Жеке перспективаның болмауы.
14. Ерекше қиындықтар жоқ.

Е9. Сіздің жасыңыздағы әйел үшін не аса мағызды болып табылыды? (3 аса маңыздысын көрсетіңіз)

1. Материалдық игілік.
2. Жақсы тұрмыстық жағдай.
3. Қызметте жетістіктерге жету.
4. Бос уақытты қызықты өткізу.
5. Достармен сөйлесу.
6. Өзімді өмірдің түрлі салаларында іске асыру.
7. Бір балалы болу.
8. Бірнеше балалы болу.
9. Денсаулықтың жақсы болуы.
10. Күйеуде болу.
11. Некенің тұрақты болуы.
12. Туыстармен тығыз қарым-қатынаста болу.
13. Қоршаған ортадан сыйлауға ие болу.
14. Жақсы білім алу.
15. Сүйікті ісіммен айналасу.

СЕГІЗІНШІ БӨЛІМ

Т1. Сізге төмендегі кестедегі сәйкес келетін нұсқасын белгілесеңіз?

	Өте діндар	Діндар	Дінге сенбейді
1. Сіз			
2. Жұбайыңыз			
3. Балаларыңыз			
4.Жұбайыңыздың әке шешесі			
5. Сіздің әке шешеңіз			
6. Жұбайыңыздың ата-апасы			
7. Сіздің ата-апаңыз			

Т2. Мешітке немесе діни орындарға жиі барасыздар ма?

	Күн сайын	Аптасына бір рет	Айына бір рет	Жылына бірнеше рет	Бармайды	Жауап бере алмаймын
1. Сіз						
2. Жұбайыңыз						
3. Балаларыңыз						
4.Жұбайыңыздың әке шешесі						
5. Сіздің әке шешеңіз						
6. Жұбайыңыздың ата-апасы						
7. Сіздің ата-апаңыз						

Т3. Үйленгенде некеңіз діни жолмен қиылды ма?

1. Иә, діни жолмен.

2. Жоқ .

Т4. Үй ішіндегі қызметтер Сіздің жанұяда қалай бөлінген?

1. Жұбайым (күйеуім) ақша табады, мен жұмыс істемей үйге қараймын.
2. Керісінше, Сіз ақша табасыз ал жұбайыңыз жұмыс істемей үйді қарайды.
3. Екеуміз де жұмыс істейміз, бірақ бала тәрбиесі мен үй әйелдің (сіздің)мойнында.
4. Үй шаруасы әйелдікі немесе еркектікі деп бөлінбейді,екеуміз де жұмыс істеп, бірігіп үйге қараймыз.
5. Екеуміз де жұмыстамыз, үйге туыстарымыз қарайды.
6. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

Т5. Жас жанұя кімдермен бірге тұрғаны дұрыс?

1. Ата-енесімен.
2. Әйелдің әке-шешесімен яғни қайынжұртында.
3. Бөлек тұрған жөн.
4. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

Т6. Сіздің пікіріңізше, ата анасы ұлдарына не беруге міндетті ? (тек бір ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)

Сәби немесе жас кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Тілін,әдет-ғұрпын,салт-дәстүрін танып білуге сійкес тәрбиелеу		
2. Білімді болып өсуге тәрбиелеу		
3. Басқаша пікіріңіз		

Ересек кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Өмірлік жарын дұрыс таңдау		
2.Жеке үй алып беруге		
3. Жоғары білімді азамат болуына		
4. Қызметке тұрғызу		
5.Басқаша ойыңыз		

Үйленген кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Қаржылай көмек көрсету		
2. Немересін тәрбиелеуге көмектесу		
3. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)		

Т7. Сіздің пікіріңізше, ата анасы қыздарына не беруге міндетті ? (тек бір ғана жауапты таңдаңыз)

Сәби немесе жас кезінде :

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Тілін,әдет – ғұрпын,салт – дәстүрін танып білуге сійкес тәрбиелеу		
2. Білімді болып өсуге тәрбиелеу		
3. Басқаша пікіріңіз		

Ересек кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Өмірлік жарын дұрыс таңдау		
2.Жеке үй алып беруге		
3. Жоғары білімді азамат болуына		
4. Қызметке тұрғызу		
5.Басқаша ойыңыз		

Тұрмыс құрған кезінде:

	Ия	Жоқ
1. Қаржылай көмек көрсету		
2. Немересін тәрбиелеуге көмектесу		
3. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)		

Т8. Сіздің ойыңызша, әке – шешесін бағу қай баланың міндеті?

1. Тек ұл баланың.
2. Тек қыз баланың.
3. Екі баланың да міндеті.
4. Басқасы (көрсетіңіз)_____

Т9. Есейген баланың ата-анасының (сіздердің) алдындағы міндеті ?
(тек маңыздысын таңдаңыз)
1.Тұрмыс жағдайы қандай болса да, ата-анасын бағуға міндетті.
2.Тұрмыс жағдайы қандай болса да, тек қарт әке шешесі бағуға міндетті.
3.Балаңыздың тұрмыс жағдайы жақсы болса ғана , сіздерді бағуға міндетті.
4. Балаларыңыз Сіздерді бағуға міндетті емес.

Т10. Өз әке шешеңіздің некесін қалай бағалар едіңіз?
1. Өте бақытты неке.
2. Сәтті неке.
3. Орташа, арасында қиындықтар болып тұрды.
4. Бақытсыз неке.
5. Ажырасып кеткен.
6. Басқа_____

Т11. Сіздің анаңыз қанша баланы дүниеге әкелді?

1.Барлығы _____ Оның ішінде: 2.Ұл_____ 3.Қыз_____

Т12. Некеге дейін жыныстық қатынаста болып көрдіңіз бе?

1. Иә.
2. Жоқ .
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.

Т13. Сіз ер адамдардың некеге дейін жыныстық қатынаста болғанына қалай қарайсыз?
1. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны дұрыс.
2. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны теріс.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқаша ойыңыз (көрсетіңіз) _____

Т14. Сіз әйел затыңың некеге дейін жыныстық қатынаста болғанына қалай қарайсыз?
1. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны дұрыс.
2. Жыныстық қатынаста болғаны теріс.
3. Жауап бере алмаймын.
4. Басқаша ойыңыз (көрсетіңіз) _____

Т15. Тұрмысқа шығуыңыздағы басты себепті көрсетсеңіз?
1. Балалы болу үшін.
2. Қоғамда, міндетті түрде шығу қажет болғандықтан.
3. Туыстарым айтқан соң.

4. Махаббатымыз жарасқаны үшін.
5. Әке шешемнен тәуелсіздік алу үшін.
6. Қаржылай қамтамасаз болу үшін.

..... күні 2009 жыл қолы: _____

Сауалнамаға қатысқаныңыз үшін алғысымызды білдіреміз!

Appendix 19 – Questionnaire for repatriates in Kazakhstan (in Russian language)

"ХАЛЫҚАРАЛЫҚ БАҒДАРЛАМАЛАР ОРТАЛЫҒЫ" АКЦИОНЕРЛІК ҚОҒАМЫ
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РЕПРОДУКТИВНОЕ ПОВЕДЕНИЕ РЕПАТРИАНТОВ ИЗ МОНГОЛИИ И КАЗАХСКОЙ ДИАСПОРЫ В МОНГОЛИИ.

_____
номер вопросника

_____
номер опраштваемого

_____
массив информации (ПГТ/поселок/село)

Здравствуйте!

Просим Вас принять участие в социологическом (демографическом) исследовании, которое проводится с целью изучения мнения женщин репатриантов Республики Казахстан и казахской диаспоры в Монголии о **семье, браке, рождаемости и выявление проблем, волнующих Вас в данное время.**

Анкета анонимная. Результаты исследования всецело зависят от искренности Ваших ответов.

Для заполнения анкеты Вам необходимо выбрать и обвести кружком (в некоторых случаях несколько) вариант ответа, соответствующий Вашему мнению. Если не один из приведенных вариантов Вас не устаивает, то укажите, пожалуйста, свой вариант или причины отказа от ответа. **Дополнительную инструкцию Вы можете получить у опрашивающего Вас сотрудника**.

Благодарим Вас за сотрудничество!

ПЕРВЫЙ БЛОК

S1.Укажите,пожалуйста, в каком году родились?

1. Вы в _____году.
2. Отец в _____году.
3. Мать в _____году.
4. Муж_____году.

S2. Где вы жили в Монголии (сколько лет и когда)?

1. В селе _____
2. В городе _____
3. Другое _____

S3.Сколько лет живете в Казахстане?

1. 1 год
2. 2–4 года
3. 5–7 лет
4. 8–10 лет
5. 10–15 лет
6. укажите_____
7.

S4. Вы переехали в Казахстан по квоте?

1. да
2. нет

S5. Ваша семейное положение:

1. Не замужем
2. Замужем в первый раз
3. Замужем во второй (третий) раз
4. Замужем, но живем раздельно
5. Живу с партнером в незарегистрированном браке
6. Разведена
7. Вдова

S6. Если Вы замужем, то укажите в какой стране Вы вступили в брак.

1. в Монголии ____
2. в Казахстане ____

S7. Сколько было лет во время вступления в брак?

	В первой раз	Во второй раз	В третий раз
1.Вам			
2. Вашему мужу			

S8. Сколько лет Вы состоите/состояли в браке?

	В последнем браке	В незарегистрированном
1. до 1 года		
2. от 1 года до 3 лет		
3. от 4 лет до 6 лет		
4. от 7 до 10 лет		

5. от 11 до 15 лет		
6. от 16 до 20 лет		
7. более 21 года		
8. Другое		

S9.Сколько всего беременностей было у Вас?_____беременностей

S10. Были ли Вы беременны в момент заключения брака?

1. да
2. нет

S11. Укажите, пожалуйста год и место рождения, пол Ваших детей и кто из них жив/умер?

	Год рождения	пол ребенка	В Монголии	В Казахстане	жив	умер
1.Первый ребенок						
2.Второй ребенок						
3.Третий ребенок						
4.Четвертый ребенок						
5.Пятый ребенок						
6.Шестой ребенок						
7.Седьмой ребенок						
8.Восьмой ребенок						

S12. Какую помощь оказывает Ваш муж по уходу и воспитанием за детьми?

	ежедневно	Один/два раза в неделю	Менее часто	никогда
1.Сидит дома и смотрит за детми				
2. Гуляет с детьми на свежем воздухе				
3. Готовит детям еду				
4. Купает детей				
5. Читает детям книги				
6. Делает с детьми уроки				
7. Отводит детей в школу /детский сад				
8.Другое (напишите)				

ВТОРОЙ БЛОК

D1. Где Вы прожили до 17 лет?

1.В крупном городе (столица, областной центр)
2.В городе
3.В поселке городского типа
4.В селе
5.Другое (напишите)_____

D2. Где прожил Ваш муж до 17 лет?

1.В крупном городе (столица, областной центр)
2.В городе

3.В поселке городского типа
4.В селе
5.Другое (напишите)_____

D3. В момент вступления в брак имели ли Вы или Ваш муж собственную квартиру?

	Да	Нет
1. Первый брак (в Монголии)		
2. Второй брак (в Монголии)		
3. Первый брак (в Казахстане)		
4. Второй брак (в Казахстане)		

D4. Через какое время Вы получили (купили) собственную квартиру? *У респондентов, которые еще не имеют собственной квартиры, напишите 0.*
1. После вступления в брак _____(лет)
2. После переезда в Казахстан _____ (лет)

D5. Какое у Вашей семьи жилье и кому оно принадлежить?

	да	нет	мужу	родителям	государству	хозяеевам
1.Дом,со всеми удобствами						
2.Дом с ограниченными удобствами						
3.Собственная квартира						
4.Квартира по ипотечному кредитованию						
5.Живем у родственников						

D6. Удовлетворены ли Вы своими жилищными условиями?
1.Да, полностью
2.Да, но не совсем
3.Нет

D7. Из скольки комнат состоит Ваша жилье?
1. одна комнатная
2. двух комтнатная
3. трех комнатная
4. другое напишите_____

D8. Кроме Вашей собственной семьи (муж и дети), кто еще живет с Вами? /Пожалуйста, отметьте/

1. Бабушка и дедушка мужа
2. Ваша бабушка и дедушка
3. Родители мужа
4. Ваши родители

5. Братья и сестра мужа
6. Ваши братья и сестра
7. Другое (напишите)_____

D9. Какие из перечисленных предметов имеет Ваша собственная семья (муж, дети) ?

	имеем	неимеем
1. компьютер		
2. телевизор		
3. автомобиль		
4. мобильный телефон		
5. собственное дело (магазин)		

D10. Как Вы оцениваете материальное благосостояние своей семьи?
1.Практически ни в чем себе не отказываем
2.Почти на все хватает
3.В основном хватает, но для покупки дорогостоящих предметов нужно брать в долг
4.На повседневные затраты хватает, но покупка одежды затруднительна
5.На повседневные расходы уходит вся заработная плата
6.Денег не хватает, приходится занимать
7.Другое (напишите) _____.

D11. Как изменился уровень жизни Вашей семьи за прошедшее десятилетие?
1. улучшился
2. не изменился
3. ухудшился
4. затрудняюсь ответить

D12. Чей вклад в семейный бюджет больше?
1. Мужа
2. Мой
3.Родителей мужа
4. Моих родители
5. Детей
6.Других (напишите)_____

D13. Размер пособий по уходу детьми Вас удовлетворяет?
1.нет
2.да

D14. Оцените, пожалуйста Вашы другие личные доходы, кроме пособии?

1.1000–4000 тыс.тенге
2. 5000–7000 тыс.тенге
3. 8000–10000 тыс.тенге
4. 11000–14000 тыс.тенге
5. 15000–выше
6.. другое (напишите) _____

ТРЕТИЙ БЛОК

N1. Выберите один вариант ответа которое Вы считаете правильным для решении проблемы по увеличению численности наелении?
1. через миграцию
2. через рождаемость

3. затрудняюсь ответить
4. другое _____

N2. Как Вы смотрите на политику Казахстана по увелечению численности населения?

1. да, я согласно, необходимо увиличить населения
2. нет, я против увилении населении
3. мне все равно
4. затрудняюсь ответить

N3. На Ваш взглядь, каким семьям должно помогать государство?

1. всем семьям с детьми.
2. всем семьям с детьми, которые окозались в трудном финансовом положении.
3. только многодетным семьям (3 и более).
4. молодым семьям.
5. Ваш вариант_____.

N4. Планируете ли Вы в ближайшие годы переехать?

1. Не собираюсь переезжать
2. В пределах Казахстана (из города в город)
3. В пределах Казахстана (из села в город)
4. В другую страну
5. Обратно в Монголию
6. Другое (напишите)_____

N5. Если сравнить где вам лучше жилось (живется) ?

1. в Монголии
2. в Казахстане

ЧЕТВЕРТЫЙ БЛОК

Фильтр: ***Вопросы – только для тех респондентов, у которых 2 и более детей.***

Для тех, кого нет детей или 1 ребенок ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу **A1**

P1.На Ваш взгляд из скольки детей должен состоит семья?

1. Всего ____
2. Мальчиков ____
3. Девочек ____
4. затрудняюсь ответить

P2. Есть такая практика, когда женщины рожают до тех пор, пока у них не родится мальчик. Как Вы считаете это правильно?

1.Да
2.Нет
3.Другое (напишите)_____

P3. Если у Вас нет еще мальчика а есть девочки, то Вы будете рожать пока у Вас не родиться мальчик?

1.Да
2.Нет
3.Другое (напишите)_____

P4. Что для Вас значат дети? Выберите 2 наиболее важных ответа

1.Условие создания семьи

2.Смысл жизни
3.Опора в старости
4.Источник радости
5.Источник проблем
6.Спасение от одиночества
7.Другое (напишите)_____

P5. Как Вы считаете, каков идеальный возраст для вступления в брак мужчин и женщин?

1.Мужчин_____
2.Женщин_____

P5. Какой возраст у женщины Вам кажется наиболее подходящим для рождения первого и последнего ребенка?
1.Первый ребенок _____ лет
2.Последний ребенок _____ лет

P6. Кто принимал решение о рождении последнего ребенка?
1.Вы
2.Муж
3.Вы и Ваш муж
4.Ваша мама
5.Ваши старшие дети
6.Ваши родственники
7.Получилось само собой
8.Другое (напишите)_____

P7. Вы раведены, укажите пожалуйста? *Если нет ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу P9*
Официально / неофициально (подчеркните)
1. да
2. нет

P8. Если Вы разведены, то какие Вы трудности испытываете?

	да	нет
1. Материально		
2. Психологически		
3. В воспитании детей		
4. Другое (напишите)		

P9. Наверняка у Вас есть знакомые, которые в результате развода воспитывают детей без мужа. С каким из утверждений Вы согласны? Так как нет мужа/отца этим семьям трудно.

	да	нет
1.Материально		
2.Психологически		
3.В воспитании детей		
4.Она испытывает те же проблемы, что и мы		
5. Другое (напишите)		

P10. С каким из высказываний Вы согласны? (выберите только один ответ)

1. Муж является гарантом материального и морального благополучия

2. Муж является гарантом материального благополучия
3. Если по какой – либо причине (пьянство, плохой характер и т.д.) муж создает трудности в семье, то жена должна обязательно с ним развестись
4. Если по какой – либо причине (пьянство, плохой характер и т.д.) муж создает трудности в семье, то жена может с ним развестись только в том случае, если она сможет содержать детей

P11. Как Вы считаете, кто в наши дни становится многодетной матерью? Женщины, которые (выберите только один ответ)

1. Сильно любят детей
2. Любят мужа
3. Уверены в своем будущем
4. Думают о будущем государства
5. Не задумываются о будущем своих детей
6. Полагаются на помощь государства
7. Другое (напишите)_____

P12. С каким из утверждений Вы согласны? (Выберите один ответ)

1.Многодетные матери на старости лет окружены заботой детей
2.У многодетной матери есть выбор с кем из детей ей жить на старости лет
3.Сколько бы детей не рожала женщина, на старости лет все равно останется одна с мужем

ПЯТЫЙ БЛОК

A1. Планировали ли Вы количество детей, которое бы Вы хотели иметь, уже при вступлении в брак?

1. Да
2. Нет→ ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу **A3**

A2. Если да, то сколько? _____ детей

A3. Сколько всего детей (включая тех, которые уже есть), Вы планируете иметь в своей семье?

1. Всего_____
2. Мальчиков_____
3. Девочек_____

A4. Скольких детей Вы бы посоветовали бы иметь своим детям?

1. Сыну_____
2. Дочери_____

A5. Какую семью Вы считаете многодетной?

1. с 2 детьми
2. с 3 детьми
3. с 4 детьми
4. с 5 детьми
5. более 5 детей
6. Другое (напишите)_____

А6. До какого возраста Вы планируете рожать детей?

	Не замужные	Замужные, в возрасте до 30 лет	Замужные, в возрасте до 40 лет
1.До 30 лет			
2.До 35 лет			
3.До 40 лет			
4.До 45 лет			
5. Больше рожать не собираюсь			
6.Другое (укажите)			

А7. Хотелось бы Вам иметь больше детей, чем есть сейчас?

	Замужные до 25 лет	Замужные, в возрасте до 30 лет	Замужные, в возрасте до 40 лет
1.Да			
2.Нет			
3.Не знаю			
4.Хотелось бы иметь меньше			

А8. Если Вы планируете родить ребенка, то какой пол ребенка является для Вас желаемым?

	да	нет	незнаю
1. Мальчик			
2. Девочка			
3. Пол ребенка не имеет значения			

А9. На ваш взгляд, сколько детей лучше всего ВООБЩЕ иметь в семье?

1.Всего_____
2.Из них: Мальчиков_____
3.Девочек_____
4.Затрудняюсь ответить

А10. Сколько детей Вы бы хотели иметь, если бы у Вас были все необходимые условия (работа, дом, деньги и т.д.)?

1. Всего_____
2. Мальчиков_____
3. Девочек_____
4. Затрудняюсь ответить

А11. Если Вам известно мнение Вашего мужа, то, сколько детей хотел бы иметь он?

Укажите_____

А12. Что Вам мешает иметь больше детей, если да то что?

Относиться к молодым:

	да,мешеает	нет,немешает
1. Ваша работа		
2. Отсутствие работы у мужа		
3. Жилищные условия		

4.Финансовые затруднения		
5. Ухудшившееся здоровье		
6. Чрезмерное употребление алкоголя супругом		
7.Не уверенность в завтрашнем дне		
8.Другое (напишите)		

Относиться к старшим:

	да,мешеает	нет,немешает
1.Ваша работа		
2.Отсутствие работы у мужа		
3.Жилищные условия		
4.Финансовые затруднения		
5.Ухудшившееся здоровье		
6.Чрезмерное употребление алкоголя супругом		
7.Достаточно детей		
8.Немолодой возраст		
9.Другое (напишите)		

A13. Если Ваша беременность окажется незапланированной, оставите ли Вы ребенка?

1. Да
2. Нет
3. Затрудняюсь ответить

A14. В случае наступления беременности у незамужней девушки, что бы Вы посоветовали бы ей и ее родителям?

1. Добиться заключения брака
2. Сделать аборт
3. Родить ребенка, даже если не удастся вступить в брак и вырастить его самостоятельно
4. Другое (напишите)_____

A15. Какой интервал между рождениями детей можно считать наилучшим?

1. 1–1,5 года
2. 2–2,5 года
3. 3–4 года
4. 5 лет
5. Более 5 лет
6.Другое (укажите)_____

A16. Использовали ли Вы контрацепцию (если да, то укажите, пожалуйста, какие виды)

	Когда была не	В браке	После распада

	замужем		брака
1. Не использовала			
2. Презервативы			
3. Гормональные таблетки			
4. Внутриматочные спирали			
5. Отказ от половой жизни			
6. Отказ от ответа			
7. Другое (укажите)			

A17. Укажите, пожалуйста, что по Вашему мнению, представляет собой аборт?

1. Это обыкновенная медицинская процедура.

2. Это серьезная медицинская операция для здоровья женщины: однако лучше сделать аборт, чем иметь нежеланного ребенка.

3. Аборт допустим лишь в том случае, когда рождение ребенка представляет серьезную угрозу для здоровья матери или когда плод имеет аномалии.

4. Аборт недопустим ни при каких обстоятельствах.

A18. Делали ли Вы когда – нибудь аборт?

	Да (сколько)	Нет	Отказ от ответа
1. Когда была не замужем			
2. В браке			
3. После распада брака			

A19. Кто, по Вашему мнению, несет ответственность за принятие решения об аборте?

1.Женщина
2.Супруг/ муж
3. Вместе
4. Партнер
5. Другое _____.

A20. Если бы Вы не могли бы иметь детей, то что бы Вы сделали? (выберите только один вариант из ответов)

1. Взяли бы ребенка из детского дома
2. Взяли бы на воспитание ребенка у родственников
3. Попытались бы иметь «пробирочных» детей или обратились к услугам суррогатной матери
4. Если проблема в муже, то развелась бы
5. Смирились бы с бездетностью
6. Затрудняюсь ответить
7. Другое (напишите)_____

A21. Что, по Вашему мнению, побуждает людей иметь детей? (отметьте по 1 ответу в каждой колонке)

	Самое важное	Менее важное	неважно
1.Желание обеспечить продолжение рода	1	2	3
2.Желание приобрести помощников в хозяйстве	1	2	3
3.Желание получать различные льготы со стороны государства	1	2	3
4.Желание обеспечить поддержку в старости	1	2	3
5.Желание вызвать любовь и уважение со стороны мужа	1	2	3
6.Желание вызвать любовь и уважение со стороны родственников	1	2	3
7.Желание почувствовать к себе любовь и уважение со стороны детей	1	2	3
8.Желание выполнить жизненное предназначение	1	2	3
9.Желание удержать мужа в семье	1	2	3
10. Желание иметь детей разного пола	1	2	3
11. Желание родить мальчика	1	2	3
12. Желание родить девочку	1	2	3
13.Нежелание делать аборт	1	2	3
14.Желание быть такими как все	1	2	3

ШЕСТОЙ БЛОК

C1. Есть ли у вас дети состоящие (или состоявшие) в браке и укажите пожалйуста сколько?

1. Да _____
2. Нет _____

C2. Все ли Ваши дети живут сейчас с Вами?

1. Да→ ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу **C4**
2. Нет

C3. Укажите, пожалуста сколько детей дивут с Вами вместе?

1. _____детей

C4. Почему они не живут с Вами?

	Младщие дети	Старшые дети
1.Живет отдельно, своей семьей		
2.Учится в другом городе		
3.Уехал на заработки		
4.Находится на срочной службе в армии		
5.Живет у родственников		

6.Живет в интернате, детдоме		
7.Другое (напишите)		

С4. Какую помощь Вы оказываете своим ВЗРОСЛЫМ ДЕТЯМ (их семьям)?

	Регулярно	Иногда	Никогда
1.Обсуждаем проблемы, поддерживаю морально	1	2	3
2.Помогаю с воспитанием внуков	1	2	3
3.Помогаю с ведением домашнего хозяйства	1	2	3
4.Оказываю безвозмездную финансовую поддержку	1	2	3
5.Даю деньги в долг			
6.Другое (укажите)	1	2	3

С5. Какую помощь оказывают ВАШИ ВЗРОСЛЫЕ ДЕТИ ВАМ?

	Регулярно	Иногда	Никогда
1.Обсуждаем проблемы, поддерживают морально	1	2	3
2.Помогают с ведением домашнего хозяйства	1	2	3
3.Помогают при выполнении больших домашних работ (переезд, ремонт и т.п.)	1	2	3
4.Делают покупки	1	2	3
5.Помогают с личной гигиеной, сопровождают к врачу	1	2	3
6.Оказывают безвозмездную финансовую поддержку	1	2	3
7.Другое (укажите)	1	2	3

С6. К кому Вы обращаетесь в первую очередь, если у Вас возникнет финансовые проблемы ?

1. К мужу
2. К родителям
3. К родным братьям и сестрам
4. К родственникам
5. К друзьям
6. К соседям
7. Сама решаю свои проблемы
8. Другое _____

С7. Уверены ли Вы в своем будущем?

1. Да, уверен
2. Скорее да, чем нет
3. Скорее нет, чем да
4. Нет, не уверен
5. Другое (напишите)_____

СЕДЬМОЙ БЛОК

E1. Какой уровень образования у Вас и Вашего мужа?

Образование	Ваше	Мужа
Нет		
Начальное, до 4 – х классов		
Неполное среднее, до 9 класса		
Общее среднее (10–11 классов, ПТУ)		
Среднее специальное (колледж,техникум)		
Незаконченное высшее		
высшее		
Ученая степень		
Другое (укажите)		

E2. Укажите, пожалуйста, какова профессия:

	Профессия (полное название)
1.Ваша	
2. Мужа	

E5. Какова сфера Вашей деятельности и Вашего мужа?

	Ваше	Мужа
1.Государственное управление		
2.Сельское хозяйство		
3.Промышленность		
4.Строительство		
5.Социальные услуги (образование, здравоохранение и т.д.)		
6.Торговля, транспорт и услуги населению		
7.Предпринимательство		
8. Правоохранительные органы (милиция, прокуратура и т.д.)		
9.Домашнее хозяйство		
10.Безработный(ая)		
11.Пенсионер(ка)		
12.Студент (ка)		
13.Пастух		

14.Другое (укажите)		

E6. Если Вы в настоящее время работаете, то какова Ваша нагрузка?
1. Не работаю
2.Работаю на одной работе
3.Работаю и дополнительно подрабатываю
4.Сдельная работа
5.Другое (напишите)_____

E7. Готовы ли Вы отложить работу, карьеру ради рождения ребенка?

1. Да
2. Нет
3. Затрудняюсь ответить

E8. Сопоставьте, пожалуйста, свои семейные и профессиональные обязанности и попробуйте определить, какой из нижеперечисленных вариантов больше всего соответствует Вашей ситуации.

1.Отдаю предпочтение только семье
2. Посвящаю время семье и работе, но предпочтение больше семье
3.Делю свое время в равной степени между семьей и работой
4.Посвящаю время работе и семье, но предпочтение больше работе
5.Отдаю предпочтение только работе

E9. Что насколько ценно для Вас лично?

	Важно	Менее важно	Неважно
1. семья			
2. дети			
3. работа			
4. деньги			
5. любовь			
6. друзья			
7. свободное время			

E10. Какие проблемы Вас больше всего беспокоят? (Отметьте **3** наиболее важных)
1. Низкие доходы
2. Отсутствие работы
3. Отсутствие работы у мужа
4. Взаимоотношения в семье
5. Отсутствие собственного жилья
6. Плохие жилищные условия
7. Низкое качество медицинских услуг
8. Проблема здоровья одного из членов семьи
9. Дорогой общественный транспорт
10. Преступность в городе
11. Недостаточная работа местных властей по оказанию социальной поддержки
12. Нехватка свободного времени
13. Отсутствие личных перспектив
14. Особых проблем нет

E13. По Вашему мнению, что насколько важно для женщины Вашего возраста? (Отметьте 3 наиболее важных)

1. Материальное благополучие
2. Хорошие жилищные условия
3. Достичь успехов в работе
4. Интересно проводить досуг
5. Общаться с друзьями
6. Реализовать себя в различных сферах жизни
7. Иметь одного ребенка
8. Иметь несколько детей
9. Иметь хорошее здоровье
10. Быть замужем
11. Чтобы брак был стабильным
12. Тесные отношения с родственниками
13. Испытывать уважение со стороны окружающих
14. Иметь хорошее образование
15. Заниматься любимым делом

ВОСЬМОЙ БЛОК

T1. Выберите из приведенного ниже перечня подсказок ту, которая на Ваш взгляд, в наибольшей степени относится к Вам и к Вашей семье?

	очень религиозен	религиозен, но не слишком	вообще не религиозен
1. Вы			
2. Ваш муж			
3. Ваши дети			
4.Родители мужа			
5.Ваши родители			
6. Дедушка и бабушка мужа			
7. Ваша дедушка и бабушка			

T2. Как часто Вы и Вашя семья посещаете мечеть ?

	Раз в неделю или чаще	Раз в месяц	Несколько раз в год	Не посещаю	Затрудняюсь ответить
1. Вы					
2. Ваш муж					
3. Ваши дети					
4.Родители мужа					
5.Ваши родители					
6. Дедушка и бабушка мужа					
7. Ваша дедушка и бабушка					

T3. Проводился ли религиозный обряд при вступлении в брак (неке кияр, венчание и т.д.)?

1. Да
2. Нет

Т4. Как практически распределяются обязанности в Вашей семье?
1. Муж зарабатывает, жена отвечает за дом и не работает
2. Жена зарабатывает, муж отвечает за дом и не работает
3. Оба супруга работают, но за дом и воспитание детей отвечает жена
4. Нет разделения обязанностей на мужские и женские, оба супруга работают и отвечают за дом
5. Оба работают, а дом ведут родственники
6. Другое (напишите)_____

Т5. По Вашему мнению, где лучше жить молодой семье?
1. С родителями мужа
2. С родителями жены
3. Отдельно
4. Другое (напишите)_____

Т6. Что, по Вашему мнению, обязаны дать родители своему сыну ? (выберите один вариант ответа)

Когда он еще ребенок :

	да	нет
1. Традиционное воспитание		
2. Хорошее образование		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Когда он молод:

	да	нет
1. Выбрать достойную супругу		
2. Приобрести жилье		
3.Трудоустройство на высокооплачиваемую работу		
4. Другое (напишите)		

Когда он женат:

	да	нет
1. Оказывать финансовую помощь		
2. Помочь воспитать внуков		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Т7. Что, по Вашему мнению, обязаны дать родители своей дочери? (выберите один вариант ответа)

Когда она еще ребенок :

	да	нет
1. Традиционное воспитание		
2. Хорошее образование		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Когда она молода:

	да	нет
1. Выбрать достойного мужа		
2. Приобрести жилье		
3.Трудоустройство на высокооплачиваемую работу		
4. Другое (напишите)		

Когда она замужем:

	да	нет
1. Оказывать финансовую помощь		

2. Помочь воспитать внуков		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Т8. Как вы счиате обязанность содержать родителей лежит на кого?

1. только на сыновьях
2. только на дочерях
3. на сыновьях, так и на дочерях
4. укажите (другое) _____

Т9. Какие обязательства у повзрослевших детей перед родителями ? (отметьте **1** наиболее важное)

1. Дети должны содержать своих родителей, какое бы у них (детей) не было материальное положение
2. Дети должны содержать престарелых родителей, какое бы у них (детей) не было материальное положение
3. Дети должны содержать своих родителей, если у них есть на это материальные возможности
4. Дети не обязаны содержать родителей

Т10. Как бы Вы сегодня оценили брак Ваших родителей?

1. Очень счастливый
2. Успешный
3. Нормальный, с временными трудностями и проблемами
4. Скорее несчастливый
5. Брак моих родителей распался

Т11. Сколько детей родила Ваша мать?

1.Всего _____ Из них: 2.Мальчиков_____ 3.Девочек_____

Т12. Ответьте пожалуйста, у Вас было сексуального опыта до брака?

1. да
2. нет
3. отказ от ответа

Т13. Как Вы относитесь тому что мужчины (парни) имеют добрачные сексуальные отношения?

1. хорошо
2. плохо
3. затрудняюсь ответить
4. укажите (другое) _____

Т14. Как Вы относитесь тому что женщины (девушки) имеют добрачные сексуальные отношения?

1. хорошо
2. плохо
3.затрудняюсь ответить
4.укажите (другое) _____

Т15. Ответьте, пожалуйста, почему и зачем Вы вступили в брак.

	В первый брак	В небрачный союз	В последний брак
1. Чтобы родить ребенка			

2. Так приняио в нашем обществе			
3. По настоянию родных			
4. По любви			
5.Чтобы приобрести независимость от родителей			
6. Фининсовая обеспеченность			

дата «___»_____2009 подпись: _____

Спасибо за участие в опросе!

Appendix 20 – Questionnaire for ethnic Kazakhs in Mongolia (in Russian language)

"ХАЛЫҚАРАЛЫҚ БАҒДАРЛАМАЛАР ОРТАЛЫҒЫ" АКЦИОНЕРЛІК ҚОҒАМЫ
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РЕПРОДУКТИВНОЕ ПОВЕДЕНИЕ РЕПАТРИАНТОВ ИЗ МОНГОЛИИ И КАЗАХСКОЙ ДИАСПОРЫ В МОНГОЛИИ.

_____
номер вопросника

_____
номер опраштваемого

_____
массив информации (ПГТ/поселок/село)

Здравствуйте!

Просим Вас принять участие в социологическом (демографическом) исследовании, которое проводится с целью изучения мнения женщин репатриантов Республики Казахстан и казахской диаспоры в Монголии о **семье, браке, рождаемости и выявление проблем, волнующих Вас в данное время.**

Анкета анонимная. Результаты исследования всецело зависят от искренности Ваших ответов.

Для заполнения анкеты Вам необходимо выбрать и обвести кружком (в некоторых случаях несколько) вариант ответа, соответствующий Вашему мнению. Если не один из приведенных вариантов Вас не устаивает, то укажите, пожалуйста, свой вариант или причины отказа от ответа. **Дополнительную инструкцию Вы можете получить у опрашивающего Вас сотрудника**.

Благодарим Вас за сотрудничество!

ПЕРВЫЙ БЛОК

S1.Укажите,пожалуйста, в каком году родились?

1. Вы в _____году.
2. Отец в _____году.
3. Мать в _____году.
4. Муж_____году.

S2. Хотите переехать в Казахстан и когда?

1. да _____
2. нет
3. незнаю
4. затрудняюсь ответить

S3.Каким образом хотите переехать в Казахстан?

8. по квоте
9. на свои деньги

S4. Имеете ли Вы родственников живуших в Казахстане?

1. да
2. нет

S5. Укажите, пожалуйста какие именно родственники живут в Казахстане?

1. Ваши родные братья и сестры
2. Братья и сестры мужа
3. Ваша дедушка и бабушка
4. Дедушка и бабушка мужа
5. Другое (укажите) _____

S6. Есть ли у Вас дети которые получают вышее образование.

1.да
2.нет

S7. А в какой стране Ваши дети получают высшее образование?

5. В Монголии
6. В Казахстане
7. другие страны (укажите) _____

S8. Ваши взрослые дети получив высшее образование вернулись домой и работает в Монголи?

5. да
6. нет

S9. Если Вы еще не поступали в Университет, то в где бы Вы хотели учиться?

1. В Монголии
2. В Казахстане
3. другие страны (укажите) _____

S10. Если вы получите диплом, то после учебы останетесь в той стране где Вы получали образование?

1 да
2 нет
3 незнаю
4 затруднаюсь ответит

S11. Как часто навещают Вас Ваши родственники из Казахстана?

1. один раз в 6 месяц
2. 1 раз год
3. 2 раза в год
4. другое (укажите)

S12. Вы наверника заметили по рассказам своих родственников и можете уже оценить, у них условие лучше чем у Вас?

1. хорощо живут
2. плохо
3. незнаю
4. затрудняюсь ответить

S13. Они не жалеют что переехали в Казахстан?

1. да
2. нет
3. незнаю
4. затрудняюсь ответить

S14. Ваша семейное положение:

1. Не замужем
2. Замужем в первый раз
3. Замужем во второй (третий) раз
4. Замужем, но живем раздельно
5. Живу с партнером в незарегистрированном браке
6. Разведена
7. Вдова

S15. Если Вы замужем, то укажите в какой стране Вы вступили в брак.

1. в Монголии ____
2. в Казахстане ____

S16. Сколько было лет во время вступления в брак?

	В первой раз	Во второй раз	В третий раз
1.Вам			
2. Вашему мужу			

S17. Сколько лет Вы состоите/состояли в браке?

	В последнем браке	В незарегистрированном
1. до 1 года		
2. от 1 года до 3 лет		
3. от 4 лет до 6 лет		
4. от 7 до 10 лет		
5. от 11 до 15 лет		
6. от 16 до 20 лет		
7. более 21 года		

8. Другое		

S18.Сколько всего беременностей было у Вас?_____беременностей

S19. Были ли Вы беременны в момент заключения брака?

3. да
1. нет

S20. Укажите, пожалуйста год и место рождения, пол Ваших детей и кто из них жив/умер?

	Год рождения	пол ребенка	В Монголии	В Казахстане	жив	умер
1.Первый ребенок						
2.Второй ребенок						
3.Третий ребенок						
4.Четвертый ребенок						
5.Пятый ребенок						
6.Шестой ребенок						
7.Седьмой ребенок						
8.Восьмой ребенок						

S21. Какую помощь оказывает Ваш муж по уходу и воспитанием за детьми?

	ежедневно	Один/два раза в неделю	Менее часто	никогда
1.Сидит дома и смотрит за детми				
2. Гуляет с детьми на свежем воздухе				
3. Готовит детям еду				
4. Купает детей				
5. Читает детям книги				
6. Делает с детьми уроки				
7. Отводит детей в школу /детский сад				
8.Другое (напишите)				

ВТОРОЙ БЛОК

D1. Где Вы прожили до 17 лет?

1.В крупном городе (столица, областной центр)
2.В городе
3.В поселке городского типа
4.В селе
5.Другое (напишите)_____

D2. Где прожил Ваш муж до 17 лет?

6.В крупном городе (столица, областной центр)
7.В городе
8.В поселке городского типа
9.В селе

10. Другое (напишите)_____

D3. В момент вступления в брак имели ли Вы или Ваш муж собственную квартиру?

	Да	Нет
1. Первый брак (в Монголии)		
2. Второй брак (в Монголии)		
3. Первый брак (в Казахстане)		
4. Второй брак (в Казахстане)		

D4. Через какое время Вы получили (купили) собственную квартиру? *У респондентов, которые еще не имеют собственной квартиры, напишите 0.*
1. После вступления в брак _____(лет)
2. После переезда в Казахстан _____ (лет)

D5. Какое у Вашей семьи жилье и кому оно принадлежить?

	да	нет	мужу	родителям	государству	хозяеевам
1.Дом,со всеми удобствами						
2.Дом с ограниченными удобствами						
3.Собственная квартира						
4.Квартира по ипотечному кредитованию						
5.Живем у родственников						

D6. Удовлетворены ли Вы своими жилищными условиями?
1. Да, полностью
2. Да, но не совсем
3. Нет

D7. Из скольки комнат состоит Ваша жилье?
1. одна комнатная
2. двух комтнатная
3. трех комнатная
4. другое напишите_____

D8. Кроме Вашей собственной семьи (муж и дети), кто еще живет с Вами? /Пожалуйста, отметьте/

1. Бабушка и дедушка мужа
2. Ваша бабушка и дедушка
3. Родители мужа
4. Ваши родители
5. Братья и сестра мужа
6. Ваши братья и сестра
7. Другое (напишите)_____

D9. Какие из перечисленных предметов имеет Ваша собственная семья (муж, дети) ?

	имеем	неимеем
1. компьютер		
2. телевизор		
3. автомобиль		
4. мобильный телефон		
5. собственное дело (магазин)		

D10. Как Вы оцениваете материальное благосостояние своей семьи?
1.Практически ни в чем себе не отказываем
2.Почти на все хватает
3.В основном хватает, но для покупки дорогостоящих предметов нужно брать в долг
4.На повседневные затраты хватает, но покупка одежды затруднительна
5.На повседневные расходы уходит вся заработная плата
6.Денег не хватает, приходится занимать
7.Другое (напишите) _____.

D11. Как изменился уровень жизни Вашей семьи за прошедшее десятилетие?
1. улучшился
2. не изменился
3. ухудшился
4. затрудняюсь ответить

D12. Чей вклад в семейный бюджет больше?
1. Мужа
2. Мой
3.Родителей мужа
4. Моих родители
5. Детей
6.Других (напишите)_____

D13. Размер пособий по уходу детьми Вас удовлетворяет?
1.нет
2.да

D14. Оцените, пожалуйста Вашы другие личные доходы, кроме пособии?
1.10000–40000 тогруг
2.50000–70000 тогруг
3. 80000–100000 тогруг
5.110000–200000 тогруг
6. 200000–выше
7. Других (напишите)_____

ТРЕТИЙ БЛОК

N1. Выберите один вариант ответа которое Вы считаете правильным для решении проблемы по увеличению численности наелении?
1. через миграцию
2. через рождаемость
3. затрудняюсь ответить
4. другое _____

N2. Как Вы смотрите на политику Казахстана по увелечению численности населения?

1. да, я согласно, необходимо увиличить населения
2. нет, я против увилении населении
3. мне все равно
4. затрудняюсь ответить

N3. На Ваш взглядь, каким семьям должно помогать государство?

1. всем семьям с детьми.
2. всем семьям с детьми, которые окозались в трудном финансовом положении.
3. только многодетным семьям (3 и более).
4. молодым семьям.
5. Ваш вариант_____.

N4. Планируете ли Вы в ближайшие годы переехать?

1. Не собираюсь переезжать
2. В пределах Казахстана (из города в город)
3. В пределах Казахстана (из села в город)
4. В другую страну
5. Обратно в Монголию
6. Другое (напишите)_____

N5. Если сравнить где вам лучше жилось (живется) ?

1. в Монголии
2. в Казахстане

ЧЕТВЕРТЫЙ БЛОК

Фильтр: ***Вопросы – только для тех респондентов, у которых 2 и более детей.***

Для тех, кого нет детей или 1 ребенок ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу **A1**

P1.На Ваш взгляд из скольки детей должен состоит семья?

1. Всего ____
2. Мальчиков ____
3. Девочек ____
4. затрудняюсь ответить

P2. Есть такая практика, когда женщины рожают до тех пор, пока у них не родится мальчик. Как Вы считаете это правильно?

1.Да
2.Нет
3.Другое (напишите)_____

P3. Если у Вас нет еще мальчика а есть девочки, то Вы будете рожать пока у Вас не родиться мальчик?

1.Да
2.Нет
3.Другое (напишите)_____

P4. Что для Вас значат дети? Выберите 2 наиболее важных ответа

1.Условие создания семьи
2.Смысл жизни
3.Опора в старости
4.Источник радости
5.Источник проблем
6.Спасение от одиночества

7.Другое (напишите)_____

P5. Как Вы считаете, каков идеальный возраст для вступления в брак мужчин и женщин?

1.Мужчин_____
2.Женщин_____

P5. Какой возраст у женщины Вам кажется наиболее подходящим для рождения первого и последнего ребенка?
1.Первый ребенок _____ лет
2.Последний ребенок _____ лет

P6. Кто принимал решение о рождении последнего ребенка?
1.Вы
2.Муж
3.Вы и Ваш муж
4.Ваша мама
5.Ваши старшие дети
6.Ваши родственники
7.Получилось само собой
8.Другое (напишите)_____

P7. Вы раведены, укажите пожалуйста? *Если нет ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу P9*
Официально / неофициально (подчеркните)
1. да
2. нет

P8. Если Вы разведены, то какие Вы трудности испытываете?

	да	нет
1. Материально		
2. Психологически		
3. В воспитании детей		
4. Другое (напишите)		

P9. Наверняка у Вас есть знакомые, которые в результате развода воспитывают детей без мужа. С каким из утверждений Вы согласны? Так как нет мужа/отца этим семьям трудно

	да	нет
1.Материально		
2.Психологически		
3.В воспитании детей		
4.Она испытывает те же проблемы, что и мы		
5. Другое (напишите)		

P10. С каким из высказываний Вы согласны? (выберите только один ответ)

1. Муж является гарантом материального и морального благополучия
2. Муж является гарантом материального благополучия
3. Если по какой-либо причине (пьянство, плохой характер и т.д.) муж создает трудности в семье, то жена должна обязательно с ним развестись

4. Если по какой-либо причине (пьянство, плохой характер и т.д.) муж создает трудности в семье, то жена может с ним развестись только в том случае, если она сможет содержать детей

P11. Как Вы считаете, кто в наши дни становится многодетной матерью? Женщины, которые (выберите только один ответ)

1. Сильно любят детей
2. Любят мужа
3. Уверены в своем будущем
4. Думают о будущем государства
5. Не задумываются о будущем своих детей
6. Полагаются на помощь государства
7. Другое (напишите)_____

P12. С каким из утверждений Вы согласны? (Выберите один ответ)

1.Многодетные матери на старости лет окружены заботой детей
2.У многодетной матери есть выбор с кем из детей ей жить на старости лет
3.Сколько бы детей не рожала женщина, на старости лет все равно останется одна с мужем

ПЯТЫЙ БЛОК

A1. Планировали ли Вы количество детей, которое бы Вы хотели иметь, уже при вступлении в брак?
1. Да
2. Нет→ ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу **A3**

A2. Если да, то сколько? _____ детей

A3. Сколько всего детей (включая тех, которые уже есть), Вы планируете иметь в своей семье?
1. Всего_____
2. Мальчиков_____
3. Девочек_____

A4. Скольких детей Вы бы посоветовали бы иметь своим детям?
1. Сыну_____
2. Дочери_____

A5. Какую семью Вы считаете многодетной?

1. с 2 детьми
2. с 3 детьми
3. с 4 детьми
4. с 5 детьми
5. более 5 детей
6. Другое (напишите)_____

A6. До какого возраста Вы планируете рожать детей?

	Не замужные	Замужные, в возрасте до 30 лет	Замужные, в возрасте до 40 лет
1.До 30 лет			
2.До 35 лет			

3.До 40 лет			
4.До 45 лет			
5. Больше рожать не собираюсь			
6.Другое (укажите)			

А7. Хотелось бы Вам иметь больше детей, чем есть сейчас?

	Замужные до 25 лет	Замужные, в возрасте до 30 лет	Замужные, в возрасте до 40 лет
1.Да			
2.Нет			
3.Не знаю			
4.Хотелось бы иметь меньше			

А8. Если Вы планируете родить ребенка, то какой пол ребенка является для Вас желаемым?

	да	нет	Незнаю
1. Мальчик			
2. Девочка			
3. Пол ребенка не имеет значения			

А9. На ваш взгляд, сколько детей лучше всего ВООБЩЕ иметь в семье?

1.Всего_____
2.Из них: Мальчиков_____
3.Девочек_____
4.Затрудняюсь ответить

А10. Сколько детей Вы бы хотели иметь, если бы у Вас были все необходимые условия (работа, дом, деньги и т.д.)?

1. Всего_____
2. Мальчиков_____
3. Девочек_____
4. Затрудняюсь ответить

А11. Если Вам известно мнение Вашего мужа, то, сколько детей хотел бы иметь он?

Укажите_____

А12. Что Вам мешает иметь больше детей, если да то что?

Относиться к молодым:

	да,мешеает	нет,немешает
1.Ваша работа		
2.Отсутствие работы у мужа		
3. Жилищные условия		
4. Финансовые затруднения		
5. Ухудшившееся здоровье		
6. Чрезмерное употребление алкоголя супругом		
7.Не уверенность в завтрашнем дне		

8.Другое (напишите)		

Относиться к старшим:

	да,мешеает	нет,немешает
1.Ваша работа		
2.Отсутствие работы у мужа		
3.Жилищные условия		
4.Финансовые затруднения		
5.Ухудшившееся здоровье		
6.Чрезмерное употребление алкоголя супругом		
7.Достаточно детей		
8.Немолодой возраст		
9.Другое (напишите)		

A13. Если Ваша беременность окажется незапланированной, оставите ли Вы ребенка?

1.Да
2.Нет
3.Затрудняюсь ответить

A14. В случае наступления беременности у незамужней девушки, что бы Вы посоветовали бы ей и ее родителям?

1.Добиться заключения брака
2. Сделать аборт
3. Родить ребенка, даже если не удастся вступить в брак и вырастить его самостоятельно
4. Другое (напишите)_____

A15. Какой интервал между рождениями детей можно считать наилучшим?

1. 1–1,5 года
2. 2–2,5 года
3. 3–4 года
4. 5 лет
5. Более 5 лет
6.Другое (укажите)_____

A16. Использовали ли Вы контрацепцию (если да, то укажите, пожалуйста, какие виды)

	Когда была не замужем	В браке	После распада брака
1. Не использовала			
2. Презервативы			
3. Гормональные таблетки			

4. Внутриматочные спирали			
5. Отказ от половой жизни			
6. Отказ от ответа			
7. Другое (укажите)			

А17. Укажите, пожалуйста, что по Вашему мнению, представляет собой аборт?

1. Это обыкновенная медицинская процедура.

2. Это серьезная медицинская операция для здоровья женщины: однако лучше сделать аборт, чем иметь нежеланного ребенка.

3. Аборт допустим лишь в том случае, когда рождение ребенка представляет серьезную угрозу для здоровья матери или когда плод имеет аномалии.

4. Аборт недопустим ни при каких обстоятельствах.

А18. Делали ли Вы когда-нибудь аборт?

	Да (сколько)	Нет	Отказ от ответа
1. Когда была не замужем			
2. В браке			
3. После распада брака			

А19. Кто, по Вашему мнению, несет ответственность за принятие решения об аборте?

1.Женщина
2.Супруг/ муж
3. Вместе
4. Партнер
5. Другое _____.

А20. Если бы Вы не могли бы иметь детей, то что бы Вы сделали? (выберите только один вариант из ответов)

1.Взяли бы ребенка из детского дома
2. Взяли бы на воспитание ребенка у родственников
3. Попытались бы иметь «пробирочных» детей или обратились к услугам суррогатной матери
4. Если проблема в муже, то развелась бы
5.Смирились бы с бездетностью
6. Затрудняюсь ответить
7. Другое (напишите)_____

А21. Что, по Вашему мнению, побуждает людей иметь детей? (отметьте по 1 ответу в каждой колонке)

	Самое важное	Менее важное	неважно
1.Желание обеспечить продолжение рода	1	2	3

2.Желание приобрести помощников в хозяйстве	1	2	3
3.Желание получать различные льготы со стороны государства	1	2	3
4.Желание обеспечить поддержку в старости	1	2	3
5.Желание вызвать любовь и уважение со стороны мужа	1	2	3
6.Желание вызвать любовь и уважение со стороны родственников	1	2	3
7.Желание почувствовать к себе любовь и уважение со стороны детей	1	2	3
8.Желание выполнить жизненное предназначение	1	2	3
9.Желание удержать мужа в семье	1	2	3
10. Желание иметь детей разного пола	1	2	3
11. Желание родить мальчика	1	2	3
12. Желание родить девочку	1	2	3
13.Нежелание делать аборт	1	2	3
14.Желание быть такими как все	1	2	3

ШЕСТОЙ БЛОК

С1. Есть ли у вас дети состоящие (или состоявшие) в браке и укажите пожалйуста сколько?
1.Да _____
2. Нет _____

С2. Все ли Ваши дети живут сейчас с Вами?

1. Да→ ПЕРЕХОД к вопросу **4**
2. Нет

С3. Укажите, пожалуста сколько детей дивут с Вами вместе?
1. _____детей

С4. Почему они не живут с Вами?

	Младщие дети	Старшые дети
1.Живет отдельно, своей семьей		
2.Учится в другом городе		
3.Уехал на заработки		
4.Находится на срочной службе в армии		
5.Живет у родственников		
6.Живет в интернате, детдоме		
7.Другое (напишите)		

С4. Какую помощь Вы оказываете своим ВЗРОСЛЫМ ДЕТЯМ (их семьям)?

	Регулярно	Иногда	Никогда
1.Обсуждаем проблемы, поддерживаю морально	1	2	3
2.Помогаю с воспитанием внуков	1	2	3
3.Помогаю с ведением домашнего хозяйства	1	2	3
4.Оказываю безвозмездную финансовую поддержку	1	2	3
5.Даю деньги в долг			
6.Другое (укажите)	1	2	3

С5. Какую помощь оказывают ВАШИ ВЗРОСЛЫЕ ДЕТИ ВАМ?

	Регулярно	Иногда	Никогда
1.Обсуждаем проблемы, поддерживают морально	1	2	3
2.Помогают с ведением домашнего хозяйства	1	2	3
3.Помогают при выполнении больших домашних работ (переезд, ремонт и т.п.)	1	2	3
4.Делают покупки	1	2	3
5.Помогают с личной гигиеной, сопровождают к врачу	1	2	3
6.Оказывают безвозмездную финансовую поддержку	1	2	3
7.Другое (укажите)	1	2	3

С6. К кому Вы обращаетесь в первую очередь, если у Вас возникнет финансовые проблемы ?

1. К мужу
2. К родителям
3. К родным братьям и сестрам
4. К родственникам
5. К друзьям
6. К соседям
7. Сама решаю свои проблемы
8. Другое _____

С7. Уверены ли Вы в своем будущем?

1.Да, уверен
2. Скорее да, чем нет
3. Скорее нет, чем да
4. Нет, не уверен
5. Другое (напишите)_____

СЕДЬМОЙ БЛОК

Е1. акой уровень образования у Вас и Вашего мужа?

Образование	Ваше	Мужа
Нет		
Начальное, до 4 – х классов		
Неполное среднее, до 9 класса		

Общее среднее (10–11 классов, ПТУ)		
Среднее специальное (колледж,техникум)		
Незаконченное высшее		
высшее		
Ученая степень		
Другое (укажите)		

E2. Укажите, пожалуйста, какова профессия:

	Профессия (полное название)
1.Ваша	
2. Мужа	

E5. Какова сфера Вашей деятельности Вашего мужа?

	Ваше	Мужа
1.Государственное управление		
2.Сельское хозяйство		
3.Промышленность		
4.Строительство		
5.Социальные услуги (образование, здравоохранение и т.д.)		
6.Торговля, транспорт и услуги населению		
7.Предпринимательство		
8. Правоохранительные органы (милиция, прокуратура и т.д.)		
9.Домашнее хозяйство		
10.Безработный(ая)		
11.Пенсионер(ка)		
12.Студент (ка)		
13.Пастух		
14.Другое (укажите)		

E6. Если Вы в настоящее время работаете, то какова Ваша нагрузка?
1. Не работаю
2.Работаю на одной работе
3.Работаю и ополнительно подрабатываю
4.Сдельная работа
5.Другое (напишите)_____

E7. Готовы ли Вы отложить работу, карьеру ради рождения ребенка?

1. Да
2. Нет
3. Затрудняюсь ответить

E8. Сопоставьте, пожалуйста, свои семейные и профессиональные обязанности и попробуйте определить, какой из нижеперечисленных вариантов больше всего соответствует Вашей ситуации.

1. Отдаю предпочтение только семье
2. Посвящаю время семье и работе, но предпочтение больше семье
3. Делю свое время в равной степени между семьей и работой
4. Посвящаю время работе и семье, но предпочтение больше работе
5. Отдаю предпочтение только работе

E9. Что насколько ценно для Вас лично?

	Важно	Менее важно	Неважно
1. семья			
2. дети			
3. работа			
4. деньги			
5. любовь			
6. друзья			
7. свободное время			

E10. Какие проблемы Вас больше всего беспокоят? (Отметьте **3** наиболее важных)

1. Низкие доходы
2. Отсутствие работы
3. Отсутствие работы у мужа
4. Взаимоотношения в семье
5. Отсутствие собственного жилья
6. Плохие жилищные условия
7. Низкое качество медицинских услуг
8. Проблема здоровья одного из членов семьи
9. Дорогой общественный транспорт
10. Преступность в городе
11. Недостаточная работа местных властей по оказанию социальной поддержки
12. Нехватка свободного времени
13. Отсутствие личных перспектив
14. Особых проблем нет

E13. По Вашему мнению, что насколько важно для женщины Вашего возраста? (Отметьте 3 наиболее важных)

1. Материальное благополучие
2. Хорошие жилищные условия
3. Достичь успехов в работе
4. Интересно проводить досуг
5. Общаться с друзьями
6. Реализовать себя в различных сферах жизни
7. Иметь одного ребенка
8. Иметь несколько детей
9. Иметь хорошее здоровье
10. Быть замужем

11. Чтобы брак был стабильным
12. Тесные отношения с родственниками
13. Испытывать уважение со стороны окружающих
14. Иметь хорошее образование
15. Заниматься любимым делом

ВОСЬМОЙ БЛОК

Т1. Выберите из приведенного ниже перечня подсказок ту, которая на Ваш взгляд, в наибольшей степени относится к Вам и к Вашей семье?

	очень религиозен	религиозен, но не слишком	вообще не религиозен
1. Вы			
2. Ваш муж			
3. Ваши дети			
4.Родители мужа			
5.Ваши родители			
6. Дедушка и бабушка мужа			
7. Ваша дедушка и бабушка			

Т2. Как часто Вы и Вашя семья посещаете мечеть ?

	Раз в неделю или чаще	Раз в месяц	Несколько раз в год	Не посещаю	Затрудняюсь ответить
1. Вы					
2. Ваш муж					
3. Ваши дети					
4.Родители мужа					
5.Ваши родители					
6. Дедушка и бабушка мужа					
7. Ваша дедушка и бабушка					

Т3. Проводился ли религиозный обряд при вступлении в брак (неке кияр, венчание и т.д.)?

1. Да
2. Нет

Т4. Как практически распределяются обязанности в Вашей семье?
1.Муж зарабатывает, жена отвечает за дом и не работает
2.Жена зарабатывает, муж отвечает за дом и не работает
3.Оба супруга работают, но за дом и воспитание детей отвечает жена
4. Нет разделения обязанностей на мужские и женские, оба супруга работают и отвечают за дом
5. Оба работают, а дом ведут родственники
6. Другое (напишите)_____

Т5. По Вашему мнению, где лучше жить молодой семье?
1. С родителями мужа
2. С родителями жены

3. Отдельно
4. Другое (напишите)_____

Т6. Что, по Вашему мнению, обязаны дать родители своему сыну ? (выберите один вариант ответа)

Когда он еще ребенок :

	да	нет
1. Традиционное воспитание		
2. Хорошее образование		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Когда он молод:

	да	нет
1. Выбрать достойную супругу		
2. Приобрести жилье		
3.Трудоустройство на высокооплачиваемую работу		
4. Другое (напишите)		

Когда он женат:

	да	нет
1. Оказывать финансовую помощь		
2. Помочь воспитать внуков		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Т7. Что, по Вашему мнению, обязаны дать родители своей дочери? (выберите один вариант ответа)

Когда она еще ребенок :

	да	нет
1. Традиционное воспитание		
2. Хорошее образование		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Когда она молода:

	да	нет
1. Выбрать достойного мужа		
2. Приобрести жилье		
3.Трудоустройство на высокооплачиваемую работу		
4. Другое (напишите)		

Когда она замужем:

	да	нет
1. Оказывать финансовую помощь		
2. Помочь воспитать внуков		
3. Другое (напишите)		

Т8. Как вы счиате обязанность содержать родителей лежит на кого?

1.только на сыновьях
2.только на дочерях
3. на сыновьях, так и на дочерях
4. укажите (другое) _____

Т9. Какие обязательства у повзрослевших детей перед родителями ? (отметьте **1** наиболее важное)

1. Дети должны содержать своих родителей, какое бы у них (детей) не было материальное положение
2. Дети должны содержать престарелых родителей, какое бы у них (детей) не было материальное положение
3. Дети должны содержать своих родителей, если у них есть на это материальные возможности
4. Дети не обязаны содержать родителей

Т10. Как бы Вы сегодня оценили брак Ваших родителей?
1. Очень счастливый
2. Успешный
3. Нормальный, с временными трудностями и проблемами
4. Скорее несчастливый
5. Брак моих родителей распался

Т11. Сколько детей родила Ваша мать?

1.Всего _____ Из них: 2.Мальчиков_____ 3.Девочек_____

Т12. Ответьте пожалуйста, у Вас было сексуального опыта до брака?

1. да
2. нет
3. отказ от ответа

Т13. Как Вы относитесь тому что мужчины (парни) имеют добрачные сексуальные отношения?
1. хорошо
2. плохо
3. затрудняюсь ответить
4. укажите (другое) _____

Т14. Как Вы относитесь тому что женщины (девушки) имеют добрачные сексуальные отношения?
1. хорошо
2. плохо
3.затрудняюсь ответить
4.укажите (другое) _____

Т15. Ответьте, пожалуйста, почему и зачем Вы вступили в брак.

	В первый брак	В небрачный союз	В последний брак
1. Чтобы родить ребенка			
2. Так приняио в нашем обществе			
3. По настоянию родных			
4. По любви			
5.Чтобы приобрести независимость от родителей			
6. Фининсовая обеспеченность			

дата «___»_____2009 подпись: _____

Спасибо за участие в опросе!

Appendix 21 – Team of the field research, Bayan-Ulgii, Mongolia, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 22 – Place of residence of repatriates in urban areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 23 – Place of residence of repatriates in urban areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 24 – Place of residence of ethnic Kazakhs in urban areas in Mongolia, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

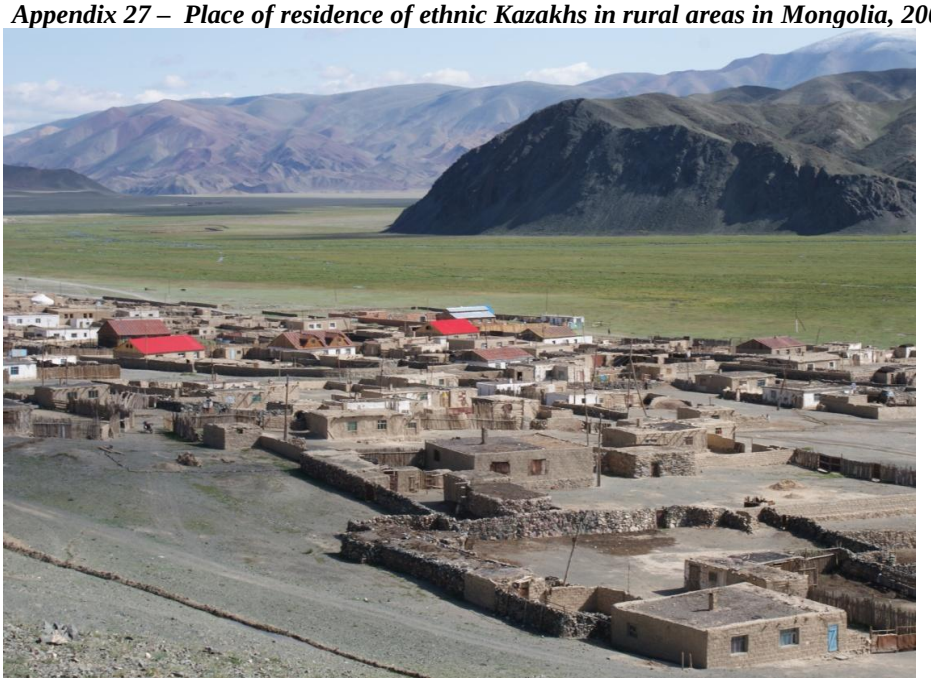
Appendix 25 – Place of residence of repatriates in rural areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 26 – Place of residence of repatriates in rural areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 27 – Place of residence of ethnic Kazakhs in rural areas in Mongolia, 2009



Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 28 – Place of residence of ethnic Kazakhs in remote/hamlet areas in Mongolia, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 29 – Place of residence of repatriates in remote/hamlet areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 30 – Place of residence of repatriates in remote/hamlet areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 31 – Repatriates' children from remote/hamlet areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 32 – Repatriates' children from rural areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 33 – Ethnic Kazakhs' children from remote/hamlet areas in Mongolia, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 34 – Ethnic Kazakhs' children from remote/hamlet areas in Mongolia, 2009

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 35 – Ethnic Kazakhs women from remote/hamlet areas in Mongolia, 2009

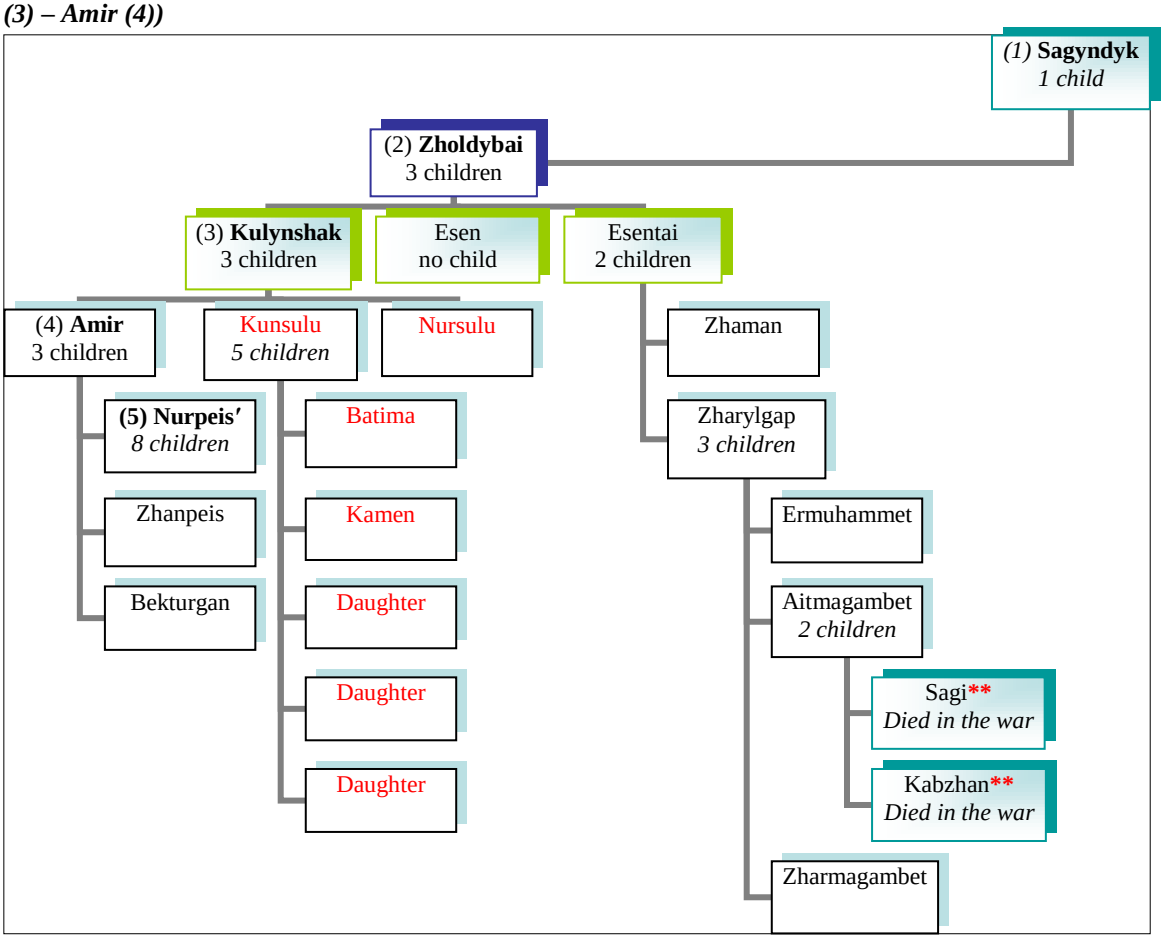
Note: 21 years old, 1 child

Source: Expedition photo

Appendix 36 – Repatriate women from rural areas in Kazakhstan, 2009

Note: 28 years old, 3 children
Source: Expedition photo

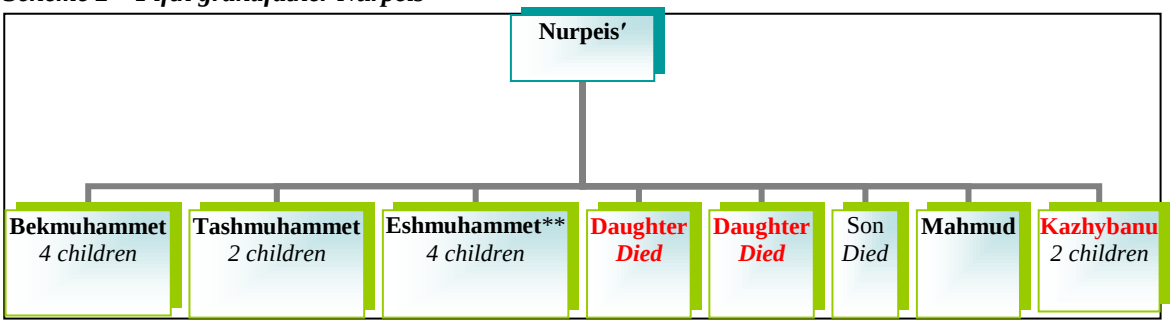
Scheme 1 – From the founder of the fourth to grandfather (Sagyndyk (1) – Zholdybai (2) – Kulynshak (3) – Amir (4))



Note:** Died in the war

′ Made a pilgrimage to Mecca (Saudi Arabia)

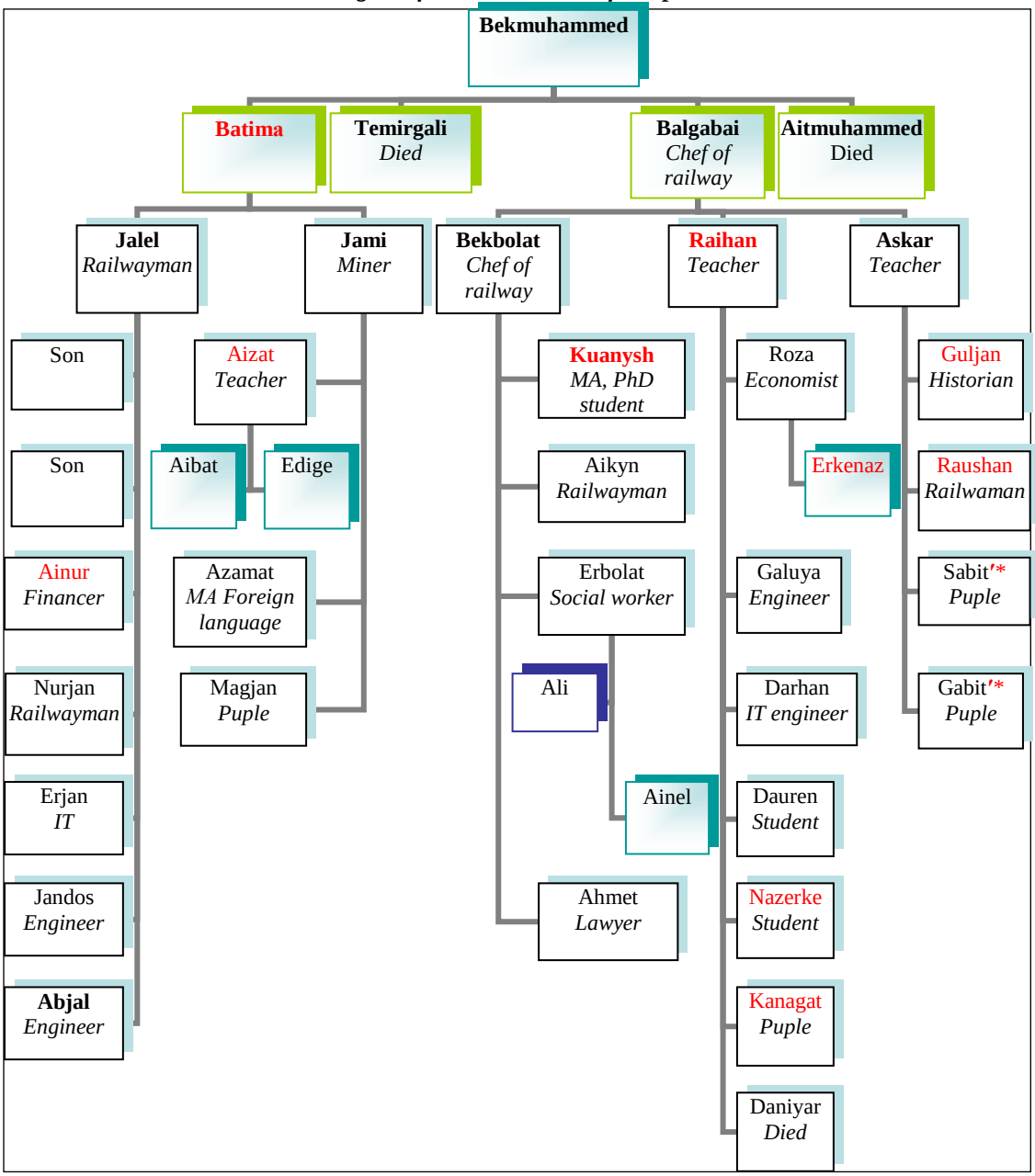
Scheme 2 – Fifth grandfather Nurpeis



Notes: ′ Made a pilgrimage to Mecca (Saudi Arabia)

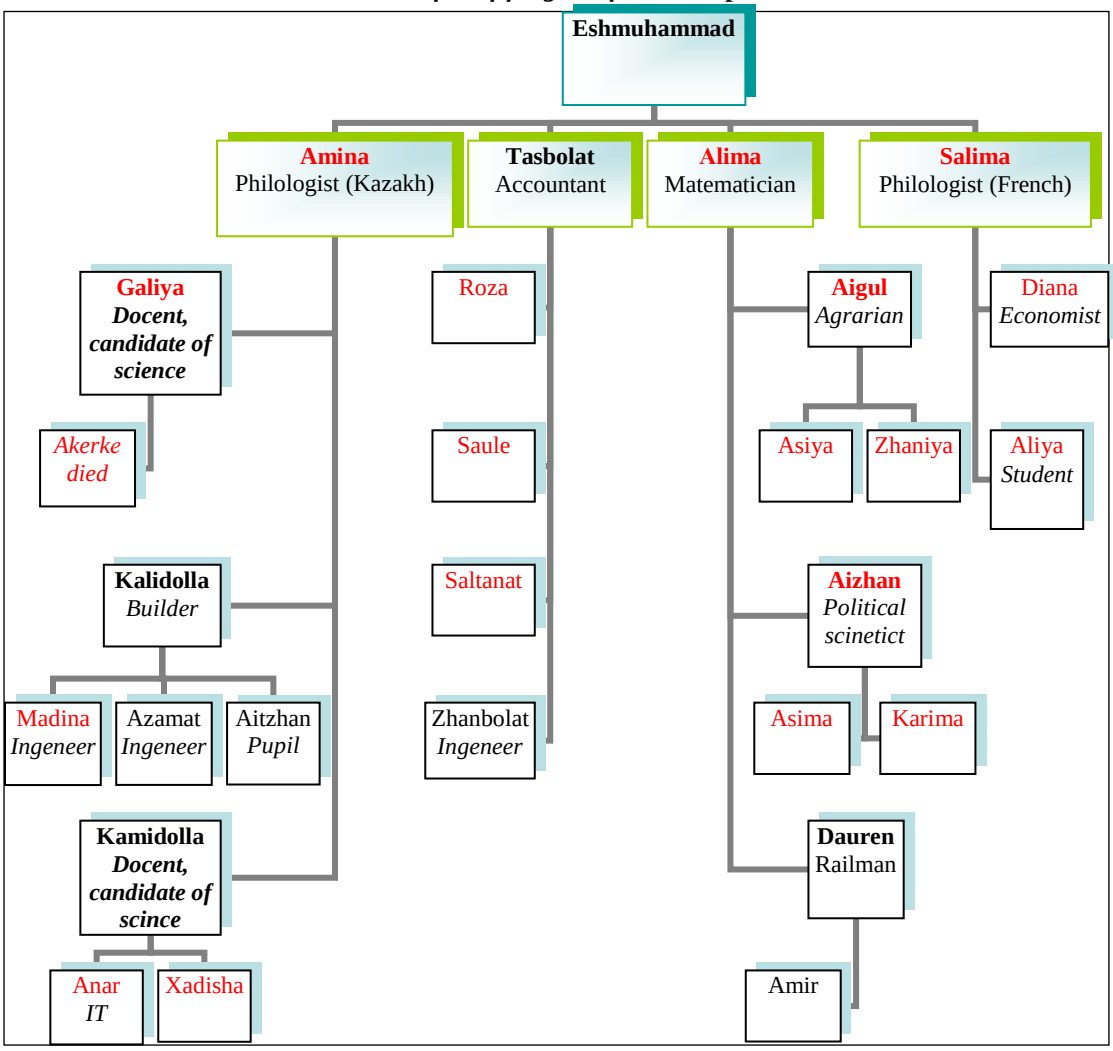
** was arrested in 1937, Stalinist repression

Scheme 3 – Bekmuhammed sixth grandfather, eldest son of Nurpeis

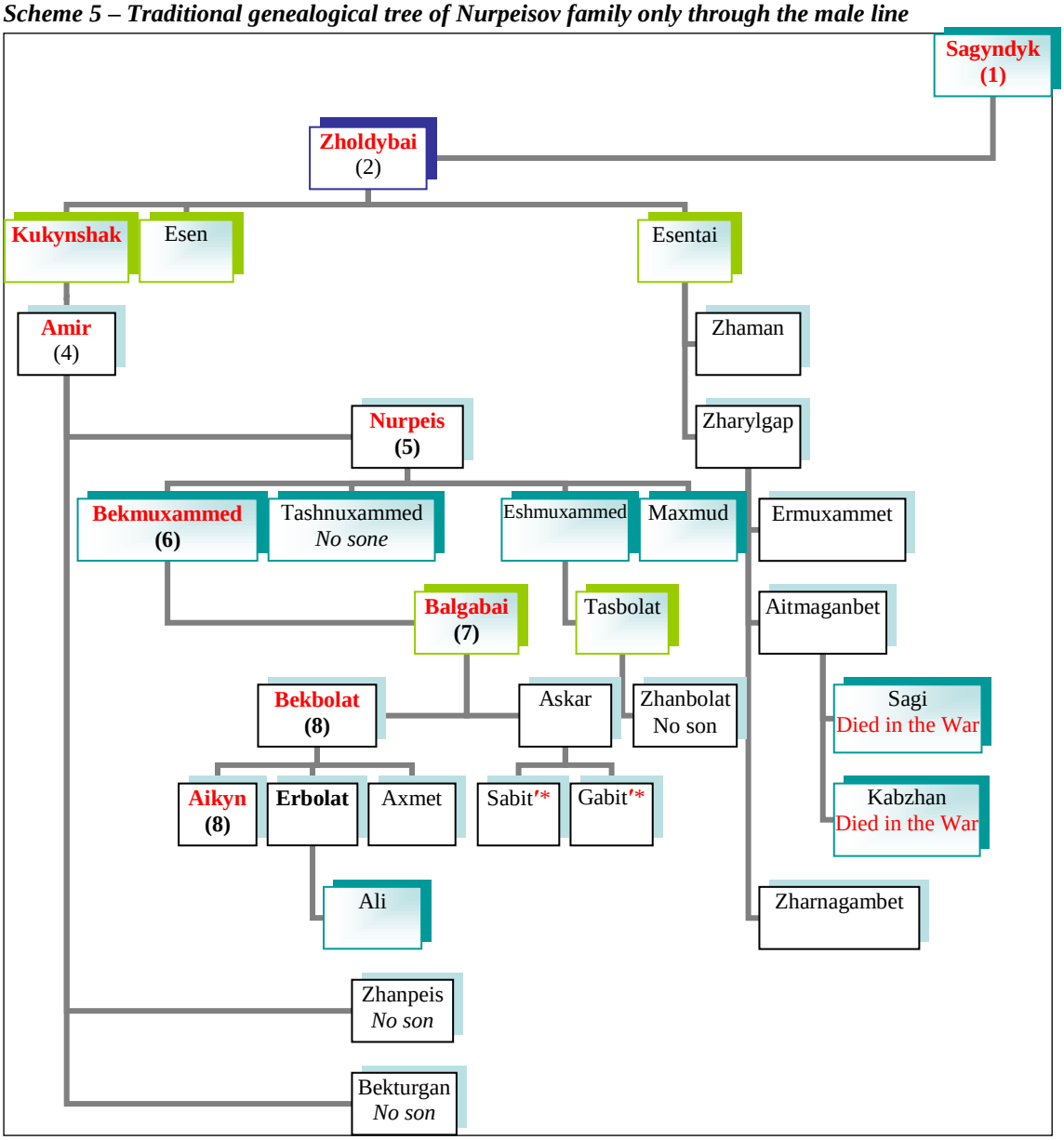


Note: '* twins

Scheme 4 – Eshmuxammad third son of the fifth grandfather Nurpeis



Scheme 5 – Traditional genealogical tree of Nurpeisov family only through the male line



Note: '* twins

Scheme 6 – Traditional genealogical tree of Shaimardan's family in Mongolia